

The Historical Outlook

A JOURNAL FOR

READERS, STUDENTS AND TEACHERS OF HISTORY

Continuing The History Teacher's Magazine

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The St. Louis Meeting of the American Historical Association

REPORTED BY DANIEL C. KNOWLTON, PH. D.

The thirty-sixth annual meeting of the American Historical Association was held in St. Louis, Mo., opening appropriately on December 27, with a dinner under the auspices of the Mississippi Valley Historical Association, and closing on the 31st with a joint session between this association and the main association. The American Catholic Historical Society, the Agricultural History Society, the Missouri Historical Society and the State Historical Society of Missouri also met with the main association and considerable emphasis was placed upon the history of Missouri and the Mississippi Valley region. An entire session, that of Thursday evening, December 29, was devoted to the commemoration of the centennial of Missouri's admission to the union in a series of papers read by representatives of the state societies and historians interested in the region in its local and national aspects.

The opening dinner was well attended—about one hundred and fifty listening with interest to Professor Alvord's résumé of the activities of the Mississippi Valley Association. The members of this association and those of the main association living near began to arrive early and naturally formed the largest element among those in attendance. Although the larger universities in the East and on the Pacific coast sent representatives many familiar faces were missing. Certain institutions on the outermost fringes of the country were well represented, notably Columbia, Dartmouth and Cornell. The meetings at Pittsburgh of the American Political Science Association, the Economic Association, and the American Sociological Society undoubtedly drew members who might otherwise have been at St. Louis. Between three and four hundred were registered at headquarters—a goodly representation under the circumstances, not the least of which were high railroad rates. A considerable number were present from the South and from teacher training institutions. The younger men were also more in evidence than the older group.

The main meetings of the American Historical Association opened on Wednesday, December 28, with a conference on the teaching of history in the schools. This drew an attendance of between 150 and 200. The topic selected for consideration, "Desirable

Adjustments Between History and the Other Social Sciences," was one in which those present manifested much interest, reflecting in this particular the interest of the country at large. Various ways of meeting the problems which it involved were suggested, both as they had to do with the courses offered in colleges and universities and those given in the secondary and elementary schools. The relation of the college to the preparatory school in the matter of examinations came up for consideration in the form of a resolution submitted to the Executive Council of the association to the effect that the Council of the association be asked to request the College Entrance Examining Board to offer an alternative examination covering the new division of history recognized by courses in Early European History and in Modern European History. The papers read and a summary of the discussion appear elsewhere in *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*.

The practice of offering a varied bill of fare, tempting to every palate, was followed by the program-makers of this meeting. The fact that the meeting places were scattered made it more difficult than usual to get to sessions that were being held at the same time to hear particular papers. The reports from these sessions indicated a keen interest in each, with a gratifying attendance. The first conference of the Agricultural History Society—now in its second year—was well attended and was the center of a lively discussion. This perhaps was due to the nature of the topics considered. One of the papers presented was on the Norwegian Element and Agrarian Discontent. Professor Schafer presented a report of some of his findings in connection with what he has called the Wisconsin Domesday Book. This investigation promises to reveal much of interest as to the history of that region.

That there is still some interest in medieval problems is indicated by the fact that the attendance at the conference on medieval history held on Wednesday morning at 10, was twice as large as the seating capacity of the room where the meeting was held. Professor Lynn Thorndike read a paper on Guido Bonatti, an Italian astrologer of the thirteenth century, and discussed somewhat generally the prevalence of astrology in that period. Professor A. C. Krey outlined the efforts of the Papacy in the later middle ages to maintain an institution of international scope, one that might be called a medieval league of nations. The more specific subject of the conference

¹ In the preparation of this brief report the thanks of the contributor are hereby extended to Professors Schafer, Melvin, Trenholme, Gillespie, Larson, Tucker and others for information supplied as to meetings which could not be attended by the writer.

was the need for a more thorough study of medieval culture in the two centuries before the Renaissance. This was introduced by Professor L. J. Paetow and discussed in further detail by Professors F. Duncalf, J. E. Wrench, and J. F. Willard. Professor Paetow argued for a more general study of medieval Latin, and urged the necessity of a revised version of DuCange's *Glossarium*. Other speakers emphasized other aspects of the period, calling attention to certain imperfectly known fields, and to materials that have not been sufficiently exploited.

The practice was also followed of simultaneous luncheon conferences. These were held on Wednesday, the 28th and on Friday, the 30th. One of these was given over to the history of the war and much that was new and suggestive was presented for consideration. The papers and the discussions dealt primarily with its military aspects. Professor Wayne E. Stevens, of Dartmouth College, in his paper on "Critical Problems Involved in the Use of the Official Records of the World War," called attention to the immense amount of material, both public and private. He particularly mentioned the varying reliability of the material, from the standpoint of internal and external historical criticism. In analyzing the air service data, from personal experience therewith, he showed the distinction between the various types of airplanes. While America did not have combat planes on the front, she did have at the close of the war a greater supply of other types, bombing, scouting, etc., than any other nation. Professor Stevens, as did others during the discussion, deplored the inaccessibility of the mass of personal data (diaries, private letters, etc.), whether of much or little importance. These would become decreasingly valuable as time passed, unless put in a more definite form.

Mr. Shipley Thomas, of New York City, in his paper on the Contribution to the History of the World War of a Group of Officers of the A. E. F., related how a number of army officers, after the war, at an army camp studied the science of warfare, incidentally relating their own experiences. He indicated that there were valuable war papers in the form of personal reports of officers to General Pershing (a form of private correspondence), which were written with greater freedom than the official reports. Hayes, in the discussion, confessed that he had been forced to scrap the opening and closing chapters of his history of the war in the light of the new materials disclosed, since his book was published.

The war was given further prominence in a session held on Thursday. The topics, the Causes of the War and the part taken by the Thirty-fifth Division on September 29, 1918, were illustrated by lantern slides consisting of plans and pictures. Colonel C. H. Lanza and Colonel C. H. Howland, who were with the American forces and are now stationed at Fort Leavenworth, were the speakers. No new light was thrown on the vexed problem of causes; in fact, the treatment was rather elementary, reminding those present of the views and explanations so prevalent during hostilities, many of which have since been corrected or modified. The paper by Colonel Lanza

on the Thirty-fifth Division was particularly appropriate in that it covered the operations of forces drawn from this part of the country. The Thirty-fifth Division was a Missouri-Kansas National Guard unit and became disorganized in the Argonne-Meuse offensive in September, 1918, and was withdrawn for reorganization as a result.

A luncheon conference of unusual interest, and at the same time typical of the program offered at this meeting, was that on the history of science. Opportunities for research in this virgin field were presented by Professor Breasted, of the University of Chicago, Professor Haskins, of Harvard, and Professor Hulbert, of Colorado College. Each dealt with different periods or aspects of the field. Some indication was given through concrete illustrations of how much light such investigations would throw upon various phases of history. A knowledge of the flora and fauna of ancient Egypt, a study of the beginnings of such sciences as medicine and astronomy from Egyptian papyri would help clear up many points as to the progress of civilization there and the life of the people. Professor Haskins emphasized the comparative ease with which medieval manuscripts could be used in this country and the contents of universities libraries abroad made available, mentioning in this connection the use of photography. He read an extract discovered in the pages of a manuscript which he had been working over, in which the wise Emperor Frederic II had propounded various scientific or pseudo-scientific questions to one of the learned men at his court. The questions revealed in a striking fashion the state of scientific knowledge in the thirteenth century. Professor Hulbert emphasized the bearing of a study of climatology on our early history, referring to the light which had been thrown upon the voyages of the Northmen in this way. The desirability of some more effective co-operation between students of science and students of history was apparent in what was said and was emphasized by the chairman.

An analogous session was that devoted to the History of Civilization, which was one of the best attended, although held at some distance from headquarters. This session, with that on the history of science and the opening session on the relation in the schools of history to the other social sciences bore witness to the desire on the part of the association to establish sympathetic contacts with related fields and to meet the present interest in the attempts which were being made at a synthesis of human development in its various phases.

The chairman, Professor Breasted, in discussing New Light on the Origins of Civilization, deplored the fact that many departments for the study of these origins were ground down with the teaching of the languages involved. In the future those working in such departments must be more than teachers of languages and more than teachers of history. Historical laboratories were needed and he pointed to the recent establishment at the University of Chicago of the Oriental Institute and mentioned the various investigations already undertaken under its direction.

These included the preparation of an Assyrian Dictionary, the collecting of documents covering "the higher life of man," represented largely by the coffin texts, and the preparation of a bibliographical guide to the mass of articles and pamphlets on the ancient East. An exploration had also been undertaken; also air surveys made from airplanes, of certain areas in Egypt.

The chairman was followed by speakers who touched upon the relation of the fine arts. Warfare and commerce and economics to the history of civilization. It was pointed out by Professor Schevill that certain special difficulties and problems attended the study of the fine arts. "How were they to be assessed?" "Were they to be viewed as the aspirations of a whole people or as an 'individual' product?" He discussed at some length their relation to the concept of progress. The historical or scientific method could not be strictly applied to this field. General Swift's paper was read by Professor Trenholme and in a brief treatment he pointed out some of the lessons taught by great masters of military science such as Napoleon and Lee. The last hundred years had been marked by three revolutions in the art of war. The third of these was the result of training in peace times and the perfecting of army mobilization. The World War was the graveyard of much of the military art of the past. He thought that another revolution in the art of war was possible.

In a most suggestive paper, Professor Westermann reviewed the problems involved in a study and appraisal of industry, commerce and business in the past, pointing out the paucity of data and the limitations set thereby in the handling of this material. Fairly satisfactory results might be obtained by the present school of economists in dealing with the period since the industrial revolution as their emphasis was upon price, markets and business cycles. The statistical method followed would enable them to draw certain conclusions based upon the amount of material at hand, but this did not apply to the more remote past. Pictures of the markets of the ancient world could only be approximate and impressionistic; historians would never be able to supply all the data the economists need for the periods preceding the Industrial Revolution. It was a matter of regret that Professor Robinson could not be present and present the topic assigned him. The chairman referred to Professor Robinson's recent book as representing his point of view.

An entire session was devoted to the problems of economic history, considering such topics as the Development of Metropolitan Economy in Europe and America and the Significance of Sociology for Economic and Social History. Professor Gras in his presentation of Metropolitan Economy contended that there was no national economy, but that the metropolitan center rather than the nation should be regarded as the unit of our economic life. Nations should still be considered as the political units. Great belts of cities pass through our own land with hinterland territory dependent upon them. These give their character to their section of the country. There may be a tendency towards the development of a great world city. In the discussion illustrations were

given of the Twin Cities, St. Paul and Minneapolis, as a metropolitan center, and of Constantinople.

Professor Barnes contended that an adequate knowledge of sociological principles was indispensable to any social science which like history dealt with the development of man and his culture in social relationships. This, according to Professor Barnes, is especially true since human progress has been more sharply conditioned by its social setting than by any other cause operating upon the life of man. Sociology furnishes the historian with the laws of social behavior. It gathers up, describes and analyzes the significance of geographical, psychological and economic forces as they operate to effect group behavior. It indicates how all of these multifarious forces act as stimuli, the responses to which, in the form of group behavior, constitute the human activities and achievements, the record of which history attempts to chronicle. It leads to an analysis of social contacts through the mingling of groups by war and immigration, and to the necessary assimilation or amalgamation which follows. Light may also be thrown by sociology on the problem of social stability and change. It may also aid in historical synthesis through the differentiation of types of society and stages of civilization. Professor Barnes illustrated his remarks as to the application of sociology to history by giving a survey of the sociological interpretation of the various fields of history. The discussion of this paper varied from the opinion that Professor Barnes had been too far-reaching in his claims for sociology as an auxiliary to history to a complete concurrence with his views, Professor Handman contending that although some historians thought that they did not recognize the relation between the two sciences, yet they did so unconsciously. The idea was also brought out that there was a great need for studying contacts between nations from a broad sociological viewpoint.

The program committee, in view perhaps of the presidency of the French Ambassador, M. Jules Jusserand, had planned for a session on France. This was disappointing in some particulars. The part played by France in world development, including her relations to development on this side of the water, were particularly stressed, notably in a paper by Bernard Fay, of Paris, on the Revolutionary Philosophy in France and in the United States at the End of the Eighteenth Century, and by Professor C. D. Hazen on the Part France Has Played in Liberating Other Nations. This and other sessions devoted to some of the better known themes might have been improved by devoting more attention to what had been accomplished already in these fields, appraising our present knowledge. The acoustic properties of the meeting place were also defective and this was aggravated in some cases by a failure on the part of speakers to recognize the fact.

The conference on the history of the American Revolution was one of the most interesting of the session. The large amount of work done by American historians during the last thirty years in rewriting the story of the Revolution was ably reviewed by Professor C. H. Van Tyne, who believes that the average American clings to the interpretation of his

old school textbook and distrusts the modern historian as one who is destroying his cherished beliefs. Professor C. W. Alvord, in a brilliant paper, argued the case for King George the Third and assigned much of the responsibility for the attitude taken by the English Government to the rascally gang of politicians who got control of the government about 1768, a group which was perhaps the most corrupt in the history of English politics.

But the story of the American Revolution is not yet told. Professor Schlesinger and Professor Morison spoke of the careful research needed to determine the influence of the religious sects and of economic conditions, to understand the organization and activity of the revolutionary machine which made such effective use of patriotic songs, telling phrases, handbills, cartoons, festivals and liberty poles, and especially the history of the separate colonies during this period, a field still largely untouched. There is a long road to travel before the history of the American Revolution can be written.

The Presidential address was delivered on Wednesday evening at a banquet tendered by the Trustees of the Missouri Botanical Garden at which some five hundred members of the association and their hosts were present. This was one of the most successful social features of the meeting. The provisions for the banquet were lavish and the cordiality and hospitality of our hosts of St. Louis were thoroughly impressed upon those in attendance. Ambassador Jusserand, in speaking on the subject, the Rearing of Ambassadors, interspersed many personal reminiscences with a detailed analysis of the literature out of the past which bore upon the selection and training of these apostles of peace. His career, he said, had been decided by the War of 1870-71 and for forty-five years he had been in the service of his country without losing a single day through illness.

Other pleasant social features of the meeting were the smoker for men and the reception for ladies held at the close of the evening meeting devoted to Missouri history, and the luncheon tendered by Washington University on the same day. Professor Bassett spoke in a happy vein at the close of the luncheon, urging upon the association the taking out of life membership and thereby swelling the endowment funds available and the making of a collection of the letters and papers of our prominent members.

The morning session of the last day was given over to three conferences each of which attracted its particular following. That on the recent history of the United States was of special interest as having on its program three writers of recent books,—Professors Paxson, Haworth and Lingley. The papers presented reflected to some extent the ideas and materials to be found in the writings. The program of the conference on modern European history, held at the same time, was in the hands of the younger men in the field and was devoted to European history since 1815.

The Ancient History Section met under the chairmanship of Professor M. I. Rostovtzeff, the distinguished Russian scholar, now at the University of Wisconsin. The general topic was "Recent Advances

in Our Knowledge of the Roman Empire." A general survey of the period was made by Professor A. E. R. Boak, of the University of Michigan. In "The Empire as a Continuation of the Republic," Professor Frank B. Marsh, of the University of Texas, argued that recent historians had not devoted sufficient attention to the republican elements which persisted into the empire. Professor Carl F. Huth, of the University of Chicago, gave a summary of the recent books and articles dealing with the religions of the empire. Professor Charles H. Oldfather, of Wabash College, insisted that the papyri were far from exhausted and gave illustrations of the manner in which they illuminate the everyday life. In "Light from the East," Professor A. T. Olmstead, of the University of Illinois, dealt with the oriental background of the classical culture, the oriental character of many of the lands within the empire, and the close relations with the various states to the east. In the general discussion, Professor J. H. Breasted, of the University of Chicago, illustrated from his own recent discoveries along the Euphrates frontier how the east may throw light on specifically Roman problems. Professor W. L. Westermann, of Cornell University, deprecated the giving of papers which were a mere summary of others' results, but the chairman, Professor Rostovtzeff, refused to accept this statement, and closed by declaring that the future of the study lay, not with the inscriptions on the papyri, but with archaeology, which can best interpret the psychology of the peoples of the empire.

Luncheon conferences followed on the history of the Far East, on Hispanic-American history, and on English history. The papers read at the conference on Hispanic-American History were noteworthy in that they represented extensive and thorough research, and threw much new light upon certain phases of its history. The chairman in introducing the speakers set an example which might well be imitated in future conferences, touching upon the preparation of each investigator for his task and his professional relation to the field of his special research. Professor Hackett pointed out the advantages offered by the University of Texas to investigators in the field of Mexican and Spanish history by its recent purchase of the invaluable historical library of rare books, pamphlets, periodicals, manuscripts and source collections of Genaro Garcia, of Mexico. The titles of the papers suggest their contents: The Establishment of the Vice-Royalty in the New World; The Policy of Spain Toward Her Revolted Colonies in 1823-24; and Some Reflections of the Cabildo.

The English History Luncheon Conference was attended by about one hundred members. The program consisted of addresses and papers on study and research in English history in colleges and universities. In his address on Recent History Tendencies and a Suggestion, Professor Cross discussed old and new ideas in the teaching and writing of history and made the suggestion that English history was a particularly fruitful field of study for American students who are preparing for the various learned professions. He drew special attention to its importance as a

preparation for lawyers. Professor Clarence Perkins, of the University of North Dakota, in an interesting and scholarly account of Electioneering in the Time of Sir Robert Walpole, brought out the various methods used by Walpole and the Duke of Newcastle to win important elections. Corruption of voters was not as flagrant as was generally supposed and the results of the election depended largely on the state of public opinion. Professor C. C. Crawford, of the University of Kansas, discussed the problem of the place of a course in English Legal and Constitutional History in the University curriculum. Various opportunities for research work in the field were then discussed.

At the annual business meeting in the afternoon, the following officers were elected: President, Charles H. Haskins; First Vice-President, Edward P. Cheyney; Second Vice-President, Woodrow Wilson; Secretary, John Spencer Bassett; Treasurer, Charles Moore; Members of the Council, James T. Shotwell, Ruth Putnam, Arthur L. Cross, Carl Russell Fish, Carlton J. H. Hayes, Sidney B. Fay, Frederic L. Paxson, St. George L. Sioussat; Nominating Committee, William E. Dodd, Henry E. Bourne, William E. Lingelbach, Nellie Neilson, William L. Westermann. The constitution was amended to increase the annual dues from \$3.00 to \$5.00, and the place of the next annual meeting was fixed at New Haven, in response to an invitation from Yale University.

At the closing session with the Mississippi Valley Historical Association the general subject of the Economic History of the Mississippi Valley was considered in three papers. (Professor Shippee, who was to have presented a paper on Federal Policy and the Fur Trade was unfortunately detained by illness.) Mrs. N. M. Miller Surrey, who has done much work in the Paris archive materials relating to America, under the direction of Mr. Waldo G. Leland, of the Carnegie Institution of Washington, presented in her paper, *The Growth of Industries in Louisiana, 1783 to 1818*, a group of highly interesting facts and conclusions concerning the French contributions to Agriculture in Louisiana. Mr. Goodwin's paper dealt with material most of which is in print, but which lays the foundation for a more complete archive study which the author hopes to pursue in London and possibly in Paris also. Mr. Goodwin sailed for England in January to prosecute that study.

The paper of Doctor Kuhlmeier aroused much interest by reason of the new light it shed on the economic, especially the commercial, necessity of the maintenance of the union in the view of the people of the Old Northwest in 1860. The speaker points out that while much freight tonnage from that region was ultimately railway borne eastward, yet to a predominant extent it was originally sent down the Ohio and the Mississippi and the people of the Northwest were unable to contemplate the severance of the Union across the Mississippi as anything but a direct calamity. In this, as the chairman pointed out, they justified Webster's prophetic words of March 7, 1850, when he said that the Mississippi Valley would ere long contain the bulk of America's population and that

the people of the northern states of the valley would never consent to a division of the union which would establish an alien government along the lower reaches of their great river. The chairman also pointed out how the fourteenth census (1920) shows that a preponderance of our population is now in the Mississippi Valley, which has, in round numbers, 56,000,000 as against 49,000,000 for the balance of the Union.

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Conference Upon Desirable Adjustments Between History and the Other Social Studies in Elementary and Secondary Schools

HELD AT ST. LOUIS, DECEMBER 27, 1921

CHAIRMAN, DANIEL C. KNOWLTON, THE LINCOLN SCHOOL OF TEACHERS COLLEGE

Paper by R. M. Tryon, the University of Chicago

The problem suggested by the title of this discussion is one in which the historians have been directly interested for a generation or more. Through at least four representative committees they have from time to time made recommendations relative to its solution. The adjustment between history, civil government, and political economy recommended by the famous Madison Conference in 1892 was that civics be taught in the last year of both elementary and secondary schools, but always in connection with history and as an adjunct to that subject and that no formal instruction in political economy be given in either of these schools, but that the general principles of this subject be taught in connection with United States history, civil government, and commercial geography. The Committee of Seven, reporting in 1898, recommended an adjustment of history and civil government in the senior high school which made one subject out of the two. While this recommendation, primarily for administrative purposes, was modified somewhat by the Committee of Five a decade or so later, the advisability of a combined course in American history and civil government was not wholly given up. The Committee of Eight, reporting in 1908 primarily on a course of study in history for the elementary school, suggested two types of adjustment between history and community life and civic problems in the grades. Besides teaching these subjects as allies with emphasis at one time upon history and at another time upon civics and community life, it was the opinion of the committee that some formal instruction should be given in the latter subjects in the last four grades independently of the history taught therein. The time suggested for this independent treatment was twenty minutes a week for a half year in grades five and six, forty minutes in grade seven, and sixty minutes in grade eight.

The fact that the human world with which the social studies deal is a rapidly changing one tended to make the recommendations of the historians out of date even before they became generally known. New social conditions are always demanding new adjustments and readjustments between the studies dealing with them. For example, the events of the past half a dozen years have so intensified the need in this country for additional provision in the public schools for the making of better citizens that we have witnessed a veritable renaissance in the teaching of history and its allies on all levels of instruction. While it, of course, is true that history has been a recognized study both in the elementary school and in the secondary school for a generation or more,

materials drawn from the fields of sociology, economics, ethics, anthropology, and political science have never received the attention that their importance justifies from the elementary and high school curriculum makers. The reason for the neglect of this group of social studies is partly found in the subjects themselves. Because of the extreme youth of most of them, their exact content has until recently been an uncertain quantity even for college classes. Now that they have acquired some maturity and a more or less specific content, they have become strong contenders for a place in the elementary and high school programs. Just what this place is to be is one of the outstanding unsolved problems in present-day curriculum-making.

Just now the friends of the social studies other than history are making big demands. Some of them feel that the educational revolution needed today to solve our political, economic, and social problems and to lead us securely in the path of progress is one that will make social studies central in the whole scheme of education and give to them at least one-third of the time of every student. Others would be satisfied with less radical reforms. Many would be happy, if they could merely bring about some needed changes in the social studies as they are now administered. In other words, they would be willing to accept an evolution. What they want is well expressed in the following except from an editorial which recently appeared in *American Education*:¹

"We have frequently heard of the need of an enriched, vitalized and socialized curriculum. Just how and where we are to begin are problems still to be worked out. A beginning may be made in the introduction of *more social studies* which is eminently worth while.

"The foremost aim of the school is to develop intelligent and patriotic citizens. To bring this about our children need to learn more about the institutions of our country; more attention to social studies should be given; sociology and economics should be more extensively introduced into the schools. Our children should understand the history and ideals of our country and American civilization; they should be given an insight into the social organizations and social institutions which surround the life of the average citizen. We must continue to emphasize the place and function of the basal institutions of society, namely, the school, the home, the church, and the machinery of our government.

"The teaching of history and civics should be revitalized. Some elementary courses stressing sociology and economics might well be introduced into junior high schools and secondary schools. These fundamental social studies would throw new light

upon the meaning of democracy and democratic institutions and contribute much toward an appreciation on the part of our youth of American institutions and a willingness to co-operate in every reasonable way to defend and maintain them."

The views set forth in this editorial are rather generally accepted today. In order to get this increased emphasis on social studies other than history, many states have recently legislated in favor of these subjects. The school people of Iowa, Illinois, New York and New Jersey, to mention but a few, are now struggling with the problem of meeting legislative requirements relative to civics, government, and the ideals of democracy in elementary and high schools. In trying to meet these requirements these people come face to face with the problem of finding a place in an already over-crowded curriculum for a new body of subject matter. They are conscious of the fact that adjustments will have to be made somewhere. Inasmuch as this new type of subject matter is so closely related to history, there is a feeling on the part of some that the adjustment ought to be made between history and this new material. Others, however, would be willing to give this new type of material a place on the program of the elementary and the high schools without disturbing the *status quo* of history. They desire that it have an independent existence, taking the time from subjects in the curriculum other than history. These people say that history is but one of the several ways of studying mankind. Just as the physical and natural worlds in their entirety cannot be understood by a study of geology alone, but must be grasped through the assistance of physics, mechanics, astronomy, chemistry, zoology, botany, and the like; so with history which has the same limitations in grasping and understanding the social world as geology has in grasping the physical and natural worlds. History, they say, must call to its assistance economics, sociology, government, community life, and, in fact, all subjects which are concerned with human relationships and conditions. And in order to make sure that history gets this much-to-be-desired assistance, the type of material included in the expression *social studies other than history* should have as they believe an independent existence on the program of both elementary and high schools.

While, in finding a place in the elementary and the high schools for this new type of social material, some would alternate and some would parallel it with history, there are still others who wish a complete revolution in the matter. These individuals would make a clean sweep of the history now taught in the schools, and replace it with a unified body of material made up from the entire field of social studies. What each of these suggested adjustments implies can be best seen by an examination of some schemes that are in actual operation or are being proposed at the present time. Let us first consider the adjustment that gives an independent and parallel existence both to history and to social studies other than history in the elementary and the high school programs.

An independent-parallel twelve-year program in

history and one of equal length in social studies other than history is at the present time more a dream than a generally recognized fact. While the former existed on paper as early as 1908 in the form of committee reports, the latter has in reality never appeared except in idea, especially in the secondary school. In 1908, when the Committee of Eight made its report very little attention was given to social studies other than history in the grades. Much progress, however, has been made since this report appeared. This committee's own recommendations, which included a specific program in civics for the last four years of the elementary school, in all probability, stimulated school people to consider the claims of this new type of material in outlining work for the elementary grades. At any rate, there began to appear as early as 1914, eight-year programs in social studies other than history for the grades below the high school. One of the first of these to be introduced into the public schools was the one prepared by Professor Gillette, of the University of North Dakota, for the schools of this state.² The influence of this course is evident to the student of elementary school curriculum-making. Of the large cities that now have an eight-year course in civics which parallels a course in history of the same length, Philadelphia is probably the most conspicuous example. These two courses were authorized by the Board of Education of this city in 1916 and 1917. The history course follows closely the recommendations of the Committee of Eight, and the course in civics is a combination of the recommendations made by at least three influential committees, namely, The Committee of Eight of the American Historical Association, The Committee on Social Studies of the National Education Association and The Committee of Seven of the American Political Science Association, the last two reporting in 1916. This independent and parallel selection and arrangement of the material in history and civics for the elementary grades which Philadelphia introduced in 1916 and 1917 is rapidly coming in favor with lawmakers and school administrators. New York State by legal enactment was placed on this basis in 1918, the actual outline of the work in civics and patriotism appearing in 1920. Pennsylvania is also rapidly going over to this scheme, and the same can be said of Iowa and probably other states and many cities of which the writer is not aware.

Viewed from the standpoint of better citizenship-making a good deal may be said in favor of a parallel and a more or less independent existence for history and social studies other than history in the elementary school. In the first place, such an arrangement makes it possible to recognize the fact that the child is a citizen when he enters school and continues to be one as long as he remains therein. And as a citizen he is a member of various communities such as the home, the school, the neighborhood, the city, the state and the nation. Furthermore, to be of most value instruction in civics should be cumulative. The habit of being a good citizen must be formed. To form this habit there must be given the opportunity for right thinking, right feeling, and right acting not only

once in the child's school career, but again and again throughout every year. These desirable ends are not always accomplished by incidental instruction in civics throughout the grades. Neither are they achieved by a half year devoted to the subject at or near the end of the elementary course. Then, again, if training in the practical phases of citizenship is so valuable as we have of late come to think it is, why deprive half or more of our children who never reach the seventh grade of formal instruction therein? This calamity is prevented by the giving of this type of instruction a definite place in every year of the child's elementary school life. And finally, from the standpoint of history the principle of separation gives the teacher the opportunity to teach to the child in an unhampered way the history that he needs for a comprehensive understanding of the life and institutions in which he is daily thrown. It also gives the opportunity to teach the fundamental developments in the history of our own country in a systematic and connected way, and makes it possible to give the student a historical background against which he can throw a multitude of happenings which he daily meets.

While the independent-parallel arrangement of history and social studies other than history in the elementary school has arrived in some places, there are but few signs of its immediate appearance in the junior and senior high schools. To the writer's knowledge no case is on record where this type of adjustment exists in these two schools. The recent New York syllabus in *Civics and Patriotism* makes provision for it in the junior high school, but the syllabus in history for the senior high school neglects it altogether by adopting the principle of combination rather than separation. There is some indication, however, that such an arrangement may in time appear in these two schools. An influential committee on social studies reporting in February, 1920, recommended that economic, social, and civic topics drawn from present-day life be given a place in every student's curriculum in every year of the junior and the senior high schools, the exact time recommended being one-half unit a year in each of the years from the seventh through the twelfth.³ It was the desire of this committee that the time necessary to give social studies other than history this independent existence be taken not alone from history but from English, mathematics, the languages, and natural science as well. Inasmuch as this recommendation was unanimously ratified by the National Association of Secondary School Principals it would seem that some results ought to be forthcoming in the near future.

Another type of adjustment between history and the social studies is one that calls for the alternating of the two subjects in the elementary and high school programs. This arrangement is most common in the grades above the sixth just as the adjustment considered above is more frequently found in the early grades. It is the one especially favored by at least three committees of national scope that have reported recently. Reference is here made to the *Committee on Social Studies*, the *Committee of the American Sociological Society on the Teaching of Sociology in*

the Grade and High Schools of America and the *Committee on History and Education for Citizenship*. Each of these committees acted on the theory that history should alternate in the junior and senior high schools with different phases of the other social studies either by days, by semesters, or by years. For example, there was general agreement among them that the twelfth year should be devoted to social studies other than history, the eleventh to American history, and the tenth to European history. For the junior high school there was a unanimous agreement that social studies other than history should occupy the ninth year, and that the eighth year be devoted largely to American history. Some disagreement existed concerning the content of the first year of the junior high school course. One committee desired to give all this year to the world before 1607; another to give it to geography with special emphasis on the social side; and a third to give it to geography and history equally divided or to history alone with geography and civics taught incidentally to, and as a factor in, the history. For the grades below the junior high school, one of these committees made no recommendation, another gave all the time to history except a half year in the sixth grade, while the third was satisfied with one full round of elementary general and American history, with emphasis on the economic and social sides.

It will be observed that each of the foregoing committees acted on the principle that whatever consideration social studies other than history receive in a reorganized program for the junior and senior high schools, the time must come largely from what has heretofore been given to history. In other words, they considered the social studies as a group of closely related materials that could best be presented in sequence, jumping as it were from one kind of material to another as the years go by.

It would scarcely be expected that the reports of committees as influential as these would go unnoticed by school people. Indeed they did not. In spite of the fact that two of these reports are less than two years old, their influence can be seen in recently reorganized programs for junior and senior high schools. For example, Richmond, Indiana, at the beginning of the present school year put into operation in the junior and senior high schools a new course in the social studies. This course devotes the first half of the seventh year to the European background of American history and the second half of this year and the first half of the eighth to American history, the second half of the eighth year being devoted to industrial geography. The ninth year is given over entirely to civics—community civics the first half, and vocational civics the second. The scope of the senior high school course may be seen from the following schematic arrangement.

Course	Grade	Time
General History	10B and 10A	10 hours, elective
Ancient History	10B and 10A	10 hours, elective
Medieval and		
Modern History	11B and 11A	10 hours, elective
English History	11A	5 hours, elective

United States		
History	11B or 12A	5 hours, required
Civics	11A or 12B	
	or 12A	5 hours, required
Economic		
Geography	12B	5 hours, elective
Social Problems	12B	5 hours, elective
Economics	12A	5 hours, elective

It will be observed that the type of adjustment in the Richmond course is just that which the three foregoing committees suggested, namely, social studies other than history in the twelfth year, history in the eleventh and tenth years, social studies other than history in the ninth, and a part of the eighth, and history in the seventh and a part of the eighth. Judging from Davis's recent extensive study of training for citizenship in the North Central States, it seems safe to say that the prevailing adjustment today between history and other social studies in junior and senior high schools is the type that alternates one social study with another in periods of time from a year to a half year in duration.

The objection to this type of adjustment from the standpoint both of the historians and of those interested in sociology, economics, and civics is that it is apt to cause social studies to compete with each other for time in the elementary and the secondary schools. Furthermore, it takes for granted that no more time than has formerly been given to history can be expected for the whole group of social studies, thus originating a fight on the part of the historians to maintain their subject in its already established position in the schools. Then again, such an adjustment tends to turn the social studies other than history over to the teachers of history whose previous training for this additional work is pretty apt to be painfully inadequate, thus creating an adverse situation for a much-to-be-desired body of social-study material.

A third type of adjustment between history and the other social studies in elementary and secondary schools is one that contemplates a combined course in these subjects. Some advocates of this adjustment would go so far as to supplant all the independent work now done in geography, history, and civics, with a new course made by a careful selection of material from the entire social science field. Others who are less radical than these would be satisfied with two one-year general social science courses comparable to the general science course now in existence. One of these courses would be given near the end of the junior high school and the other one near the end of the senior high school. There are still others, notably the sociologists, who desire something akin to unification in the first six grades, and separation from here on.

The idea back of this type of adjustment is old enough to command considerable respect. It was what Comenius had in mind when he proposed his common book of knowledge which was to form the basis and framework for the thoughts and imaginations of every citizen of the world. It has passed the experimental stage in the field of high school mathematics and has made some headway in the field of natural and physical sciences in both elementary and

secondary schools. The proposals of the Madison Conference were an application of the idea. The recommendations of the Committees of Seven and Five were favorable to the principle of unification as it applied to American history and civil government. While the advocates of unification have not to date attempted to justify their idea by reference to its age, they certainly could do so if they desired.

During the past decade there have appeared a number of courses of study on both the elementary and the secondary levels which purport to be a practical application of the principle of unification, especially in the subjects of history, civics, and economics. It should be said, however, that the unification in these courses is more fanciful than real. For example, in the foreword to a recently adopted course in American Citizenship for the elementary schools of a large city in the Middle West is this statement: "This Course in American Citizenship, though properly graded material drawn from history, civics, and economics (which in reality constitute a single body of knowledge) and by means of the latest authentic methods, seeks to impress upon the pupil an abiding appreciation of his national inheritance and to lead him to an intelligent and easy ready assumption of his obligation as a citizen." In spite of this hinted unification, however, there appears in the course a separate outline for history and one for civics for all grades above the third. A good example of the sort of unification that the Madison Conference had in mind is found in the recent syllabus in history for the secondary schools in New York State. In this syllabus the course in American history includes an abundance of material from sociology, economics, and civics. Inasmuch, however, as social, economic, and civic materials largely appear in separate topics, there is in reality an alternating arrangement rather than a unified one. To the writer's knowledge little real progress to date has been made in the introduction of a unified type of adjustment between history and the other social studies in elementary and secondary schools.

Should the extreme unionists finally succeed, it is a question with some whether a most valuable feature of the independent type of adjustment might not be lost. For when history is no longer regarded as a content subject, which is the view of some unionists, there would seem to be no provision made for some of the most desirable outcomes of an intelligently planned and organized history course. Some of these outcomes as they relate to the whole field of history are: an account of the world in which the student finds himself and of his place in it; a story of the genesis of the universe and the life of mankind thereon; an explanation of the student to himself and to other people, and an explanation of other people to him, thus giving him a place in the world and putting a meaning into his life. Furthermore, there is that mental attitude known as historical-mindedness, as well as the cultivation of lasting intellectual tastes, and the showing how absolutely the present depends upon the past—all of which come from a rightly conducted course in history which might not result in one constructed according to the unified scheme.

conducted course in history which might not result in one constructed according to the unified scheme.

The foregoing three types of adjustment between history and other social studies in elementary and secondary schools by no means exhaust the possible solutions of the problem. There is at least one other clearly defined type that deserves more consideration than it has heretofore received. Reference is here made to an adjustment which contemplates a combination of the independent-parallel and the unified schemes discussed above. Cases of this type of adjustment throughout the first eight grades are multiplying from year to year. Duluth, Minnesota; Indianapolis, Indiana, and the State of New Jersey have now in operation an adjustment which calls for the unification of social-study materials in the first three grades and an independent-parallel arrangement in the grades above the third. To the writer's thinking if these school systems were to continue this independent-parallel arrangement throughout the secondary school, they would have a very desirable solution of a problem concerning which there is so much uncertainty today. The unified course in social studies in the primary grades and a separate course for history and one for social studies other than history in all grades above the third can be justified from more than one angle. In the first place it is in harmony with the modern movement for a unified curriculum in the primary grades. It also recognizes the fact that training in citizenship to be most effective must be continuous and cumulative. Furthermore, valuable citizenship training in such a scheme is not denied the great army of children that drops out of school from the fifth grade on. Neither is it necessary under such an arrangement for the child to take the whole of the course before he receives valuable citizenship training, for it is possible to make the course proportionally as valuable to the one who takes a part of it as to the one who takes it all. Finally, all the social studies could be taught in such a way as to secure the intrinsic values of each. History, for example, could be made to do what is suggested in the following:

"History is of value chiefly because of the light it throws upon the present. If we are to understand the present and appreciate the privilege of the present we must live again the struggles, the sorrows, the hardships, the dangers, defeats and mistakes, the joys, the victories and the works of achievement out of which the present has come. In order to thus relieve history we must have brought before us vividly pictures of the people and the country in which they lived. These pictures first of all must be true pictures, and they must cover the wide range of activities in which the people engaged. They will tell us what folks were doing for a living; what they ate; what they wrought with their hands and tools; how they dressed; how they fought enemies within and without the group; how they worked, played, worshiped, married, hewed, built, bought, sold, argued, traveled and co-operated in satisfying common needs—in short how they lived."⁵

Such then are at least four of the possible adjustments between history and other social studies in elementary and secondary schools as they appear and

are being advocated at the present time. As to its desirability each has its following. Which one will come to be generally accepted no one can foretell, because of the present chaotic condition of the whole group of social studies in the elementary and high schools. Before any lasting order can be brought out of the existing chaos much systematic work will have to be done. In the first place the ideal adjustment which the title of this discussion seems to suggest will in the end be determined by the ultimate aims or outcomes expected of the social studies in elementary and secondary education. Until these are established and stated in terms of the subject matter needed to attain each, we shall continue to talk, talk, talk about the problem and make little permanent headway towards its satisfactory solution.

This existing lack of a statement in one, two, three, order of the ultimate aims and objectives to be reached through a study of the social studies is by no means the only obstacle now in the way of a satisfactory solution of the problem. As long as the social studies other than history are given over to history teachers to organize and teach, these subjects will be poorly taught and inadequately organized. Furthermore, there is so much disagreement at the present time among the economists, the sociologists, and the political scientists, both severally and collectively, relative to what they wish taught in their fields that it is impossible for the historians to adjust their older and better organized subject to an unknown body of other social study material. And all the blame for the present unsatisfactory condition of the social studies in elementary and secondary schools should by no means be placed on the social scientists other than historians, for the historians obviously need to put their own house in order. It is indeed hardly worth while to adjust any thing to the history now found in some elementary and high schools. To justify and maintain the position that has been given them, history courses in these schools will have to undergo at least an evolution if not an actual revolution both in what is taught and in the manner of teaching it that will result in giving every individual who goes through all or a part of the grades of the public elementary and secondary schools a true conception of the development of mankind in the past, bringing home to the knowledge and sympathy of all the common life and upward struggle of the people and so leading to an understanding of the social questions of their day until some or all of these reforms make their actual appearance in our school programs, the question of the most desirable adjustment between history and other social studies will remain in the academic state in which it exists at the present time.

¹January, 1920.

²Gillette, John M., "An Outline of Social Studies for Elementary Schools," *American Journal of Sociology*, XIX, 491.

³C. H. Judd (Secretary), "Report of the Committee of the National Association of Secondary School Principals on Social Studies in the High School," *School Review*, XVIII, 295.

⁴C. O. Davis, "Training for Citizenship in the North Central Association of Secondary Schools," *School Review*, XXVIII (1920), 263.

⁵Davison, W. B., "The History Teacher's Patriotic Opportunity," *Educational Review*, LV (1919), 114.

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By agreement with the preceding speaker I am to confine myself to the college phase of the subject set down for discussion. Under the term college I shall include both the college of liberal arts and sciences and the four years' teachers' college or normal school, inasmuch as the problem under consideration is common to both in almost the same way. I shall not be concerned with such specialized schools as those of commerce, journalism and the like.

To a very large extent the college problem must wait upon the solution of the school problem. Any attempt to settle the one in advance of the other will be premature and futile. We need first to know what adjustments are to be made between history and the other social sciences in the schools in order that we may have some kind of a foundation on which to base our conclusions as to what should be done in the way of adjustment in the college. But it is not too early to begin to think about the college phase of the subject before us. Straws in the air begin to indicate the direction in which the wind is blowing in the schools. No plan has as yet been definitely agreed upon; but things are shaping up fairly rapidly and unless something happens to upset matters considerably, we are in a position to anticipate in a general way at least what is likely to be agreed upon and put into operation in the schools within the course of a few more years.

One of the gratifying features of the efforts that are being made to revise and readjust the work in history and the other social sciences in the schools is that they contemplate a revision and readjustment all along the line from the first grade to the twelfth inclusive. Heretofore we have dealt with the elementary and the high schools in our schemes of study in the social sciences more or less separately, and until recently we have handled the high school phase largely from the point of view of the college entrance requirements. In the present efforts to bring about an adjustment between the social sciences we are attempting to effect it in both the elementary and the high school at the same time and in relation to each other. Moreover, we are working in conjunction with administrators and those interested in other subjects than the social sciences, and the primary purpose of all these combined efforts is to increase the efficiency of our schools in the making of good citizens. Incidentally, we trust that the high schools will turn out better candidates for admission into our colleges.

Another gratifying feature is the fairly general recognition on the part of administrators and representatives of other subjects than the social sciences that these sciences should hold the central place in the curricula of our schools and should be represented in each grade from the first to the twelfth inclusive. All that seems to stand in the way of the social sciences occupying this central place is the lack of agreement among the representatives of these studies as to the schedule of work in the different grades.

When an agreement is reached among historians, political scientists, political economists, sociologists and geographers as to this schedule, there is little doubt but that it will be incorporated in the curricula of the schools as the basal element.

The trend, as I see it at the present time, is to require four units of social studies of all students in the high school. The first unit will likely consist of some form of community civics; the second and the third will be a survey of the history of mankind from the earliest period to the present, including American history; and the fourth will be a study of American problems, involving phases of political science, political economy and sociology. Such a course as I have just outlined will not preclude other combinations as substitutes, but for the general run of students this course will likely be the one followed. In passing may I remark that history teachers have played their part in making sentiment in favor of such a schedule. They have recognized the need of giving the high school student a broader outlook on life as it now is than he can get through the study of history alone, and they have gladly joined in the movement to give the other social studies a place in the curriculum of the high school even though it might be at the expense of history.

Suppose that in the course of a few years more the high school course should be so reordered as to require of all students four units of social studies and that most of them should follow the schedule just outlined; along what lines should the social sciences be readjusted in the college?

Before answering that question a few words might well be said in review of the situation as it now exists in the departments of social science in our colleges. In the first place the tendency in many of the larger universities at least is very strong away from history and towards the other social sciences. In some of these institutions the actual enrollment in the history courses is less than that in the other social sciences. Even the recent war did not bring about any noticeable increase in interest in history. This is particularly true of European history. In the smaller colleges and in the teachers' colleges the trend away from history has not yet appeared, due largely to the fact that the history profession has possession of the field in those institutions, that the funds of the smaller institutions will not warrant any great expansion into the other social sciences, and that the demand for high school teachers of political science, political economy and sociology had not as yet become very great.

In the second place the drift is not only away from history in many of our large institutions, but in these same institutions the history courses are being patronized mainly by women. In some places the men are going in droves into the social sciences, especially political science and political economy.

In the third place a good deal of duplication is going on in the different departments. Courses in political science, political economy and sociology are being rapidly developed with considerable historical background. The political scientist, for example, in

dealing with the English cabinet system prefaces his work with a survey of the evolution of that system. Likewise the political economist and the sociologist give a historical setting for many of the topics they deal with. On the other hand, courses in history are being constructed with much attention to the principles and problems of political science, political economy and sociology. Such procedure is a recognition of the fact that any social science is insufficient when taken alone and that it needs to be supplemented by material from the other social sciences. It is an admission that political science, political economy and sociology courses with no historical background are like a building that consists of nothing but façade, and that courses in history which do not give the historical setting for the great political, industrial and social problems of today and that do not connect the past with the present, are like a building that is complete except for the façade. The method of procedure that is followed by each of the different social sciences in supplementing its own work by material adapted from another social science is due largely to the independent departmental organization under which we operate and to the lack of interdepartmental requirements.

In the fourth place the different departments of social science in many institutions, especially in the larger ones, stand related to one another as keen rivals which, if they do not openly bid against each other for patronage, oftentimes indulge in casting reflections back and forth upon the character of the subjects and the work that is being done.

In the readjustment that is to come in the college, will history recover its lead where that has been lost, or check the drift to the other social sciences, will it attract the men as strongly as the women, will duplications be eliminated or reduced, and will co-operation take the place of rivalry?

I have not raised these questions for the purpose of answering them, but that they may be held in the background of our consciousness while we try to find some sort of an answer for the question that I put a few moments ago, namely, what adjustments should be made between the social sciences in the college after adjustments have been made in the high school.

If there is to be any rearrangement between the social sciences in the college it must begin with the introductory course in these sciences, and as I see it one of two things must be done: either abolish the introductory courses that these sciences now offer and organize a single course in their stead that will combine the essential features of these different courses and require it of all freshmen or at least all of those who intend to pursue work in the social sciences; or make one of the present introductory courses a prerequisite for any or all of the other courses in the social sciences. Let us examine each of these two plans for a moment.

The first plan, that of creating a new introductory course, may commend itself to our approval because it attempts to give the freshman a broad and sweeping view of the whole field of social science and thus to prepare him for further study in any of the sub-

jects in that field, or to give him the rudiments of preparation for good citizenship if he does not care to pursue the social studies any further. Already some of our universities are attempting to work out just such a course as this. Among them is the University of Missouri, and as I am somewhat familiar with what is being done there, I am going to take a little time to describe this course here in the main outline at least.

This course is listed as a course in "Citizenship," and is to a certain extent the result of the course in "War Aims" in the days of the S. A. T. C. It is required of every freshman in the university. It is somewhat broader in its scope of work than what I have had in mind, inasmuch as it takes the place of not only the usual freshman courses in the social sciences, but also in English. Three times a week for two terms the students in this course, now numbering about 1000, listen to lectures that cover the following topics: (1) the contributions of the ancient and the medieval world; (2) the economic organization of society; (3) the historical background of the present national and international relations; (4) modern economic organization and its problems; and (5) the American citizen and his government. The students are divided into quiz sections of not over twenty-five each, and each section meets three times a week under the direction of instructors in English who have been selected with reference to their training in history and the other social sciences as well as in English. These instructors hold the students responsible in their oral and written work for the form of their expression, as well as for the content of the course. On the whole this course is proving fairly satisfactory to all the social science departments and to the English department, though the history department does not consider it as a real substitute for an introductory course in history.

This course has been organized to meet the needs of the freshmen, under present conditions. Whether the authorities at the University of Missouri would deem it necessary to modify this course if the high schools of the state should adopt the four units of social science plan as already outlined in this paper, I cannot tell. But it would seem to me that the course would have to be modified considerably if not abandoned altogether, because of the decided similarity between it and the proposed course in the senior year of the high school. It might be said that the freshman college course would be broader and more detailed than the high school senior course and for that reason should still be maintained as now organized. But experience has taught us that it is not well to go over the same field twice in two succeeding years even if the second year work is done more intensively. That might be done after an interval of a year or two, but not in the year immediately following.

The second plan which I have suggested contemplates making one of the present introductory courses in social science a prerequisite for all other work in the social sciences, and I am going to make bold to advocate that the present freshman course in Euro-

pean history or a modification of the same should be made the foundation stone upon which to build all the other courses in social science. My reason for taking this position is that under the proposed plan for the high school insufficient attention is to be given to European history. Special attention is to be given American history and the elements of political science, political economy and sociology in the last two years of the high school. But European history will be dealt with only in the sophomore year. Under these circumstances the high school graduate will enter college with a very meagre amount of information or very little appreciation of European history just as he does at the present time. All that he will get on that subject will come to him in the sophomore year and even then he will not be allowed to spend the whole year upon it. In fact, what is evidently proposed in the sophomore year is the old course in general history revamped, that is with special emphasis on the modern period. Now grant that this course will be well organized and that the teachers will be well prepared for their work and can really teach; the immaturity of the students at that stage of their intellectual development will not permit then to do very much with this most difficult and at the same time most important field of history. Moreover between their sophomore year and their admission to college they will have forgotten most of what they had learned on the subject. We find that this is the case even now. We oftentimes lament the great amount of ignorance in European history on the part of college freshmen who come to us from our best high schools with three and four years of history, and we frequently ascribe all the blame for this condition to the high school history teacher. We should not be so hasty. In the first place, many of these high school teachers upon whom we cast odium are our own product, and if they have failed, then we need to do some genuine heart searching to find out why they have been so poorly prepared at our hands for their work. As a matter of fact, most of the high school teachers of history are doing better teaching than their college professors. They are succeeding in spite of what we have failed to do for them. In the second place, the high school sophomore has limits to his capacity and too much can not be expected of him. I do not wish to minimize the capabilities of the high school student. I fear that we sometimes do that very thing and coddle him to his great detriment. But you can not expect the high school sophomore to get very far into the problems of European history with the limited experience in life that he has had. Neither can you expect the college freshman to get very far. But we have a right to demand more of him than of the high school sophomore. Many a time I have had college freshmen come to me and say that this or that subject in European history never appeared to them as it does now, and begin to lament the poor instruction that they had in history in the high school. Sometimes they were quite right in their lamentations. But on talking the matter over with them I sometimes get an admission from them that they did not have the powers of appreciation or

comprehension as sophomores in the high school that they have as college freshmen. I think this has a bearing upon the subject we are considering. If European history is so important to an understanding of things as they now are, and if it presents serious difficulties for the high school sophomore, why should not this subject constitute the backbone of the introductory college course in the social sciences?

But the adjustment between the social sciences should not stop with establishing through one way or another a common introductory course. It should be carried on considerably further. Upon this common introductory course there should be based a series of courses in the social sciences, arranged in their proper sequence and with interdepartmental requirements. Such a plan, if strictly enforced, might entail a reduction in the enrollment in certain courses, but it would undoubtedly be productive of great good not only in strengthening those courses, but also in compelling the students to obtain a certain preparation for what they undertake to do.

Both of these plans for a common introductory course may not meet with the approval of the other social scientists. I am not especially hopeful that they would agree to the second plan at all as it would shut out all of their courses from the freshman year and restrict them to only three years of work in the college. In case neither plan is adopted, the only alternative left is for the social sciences to continue to offer their own introductory courses separately and independently, and then come to some definite agreement as to majors and minors for those specializing in these studies. This would not bring about much of a readjustment between the social sciences in many institutions as just such an arrangement already exists there today.

In conclusion I would like to indulge in what may be deemed a digression from the theme of the hour, but I cannot forbear raising my voice here against the ever-increasing number of special courses that are being organized not only in the social sciences, but in all departments and opened up to undergraduate students. Every new addition to the corps of instructors in a department brings about an addition of one, two or three new courses, all of which deal with special topics as a rule. Now I would not be understood to decry the value of special courses, but I would like to insist that we make sure that our undergraduate students pursue general courses in the different fields of history before they are allowed to enter upon these special courses. This is particularly true of those who are preparing to teach. What they need is a broad knowledge of the different fields of history and they can get this only from general courses in those fields. Not until the senior year is it advisable as a rule for undergraduates to undertake work in special courses.

On the whole there is little need for many special courses in any department except when considerable graduate work is being pursued. I know it looks very fine to have a long list of special courses in our departmental announcements in the annual bulletins of our various institutions. But we need to curb our

vanity and ambitions and think of the real needs of our undergraduate students. I have witnessed too many instances of undergraduates narrowing themselves in one field or working in only scraps of different fields and then going out to teach with this inadequate equipment. We ought not to permit this to be done, and I take advantage of the opportunity to utter this word of protest.

Discussion of the Papers

BY BESSIE L. PIERCE, STATE UNIVERSITY
OF IOWA

The two papers just presented have shown clearly the complex and intricate situation into which the history curriculum of the present has been thrown by the makers of our courses of study. And, although the process of directing the young idea is often controlled by fads and fancies, yet one must admit that the "new education" has much vitality and utility not found in former times. The insistence of school administrators upon a *practical* course in history, upon a course which will develop a functioning citizenship, has produced a new type of teaching not without merit. This demand, receiving its chief impetus since the war, has brought into the elementary and secondary schools subject matter new to the history course, causing an elimination of much that was formerly taught, and producing chaotic conditions unparalleled in the history of history teaching. As Professor Tryon has pointed out, no one of us has been quite able to cope with the situation, although we have pre-empted the place for social studies in the curriculum and can retain it if we but take note of the signs of the times.

The first speaker indicated the favorable attitude of recent times toward more social studies as the best means for developing an intelligent citizenry. The layman has accepted history at last as an essential part of the education of the youth of the country. But the layman has also attempted in his acceptance of history to pick flaws in the course of study as laid down and to substitute much that he feels should be accepted. If one examine the state laws mentioned, he will find them the outgrowth of the after-war glow of patriotic fervor, sometimes leading to courses of study non-functioning and without the qualities desired by the legislators. It is plainly "up to" the historian to direct the tendencies of the times and to fashion this favor in such a manner that it will give permanency of tenure to his subject.

Several ways by which there might be an adjustment between history and the other social studies have been discussed by Professor Tryon. Without doubt the ideal adjustment would be one in which there would be little or no sacrifice of historical fact for the purpose of introducing other content matter. It is to be doubted, however, whether the school administrator when making his course of study will be willing to sacrifice to a great extent other subjects in the curriculum in order to give a place both to history and to the other social sciences. In fact, although the parallel arrangement may be desirable

from the standpoint of content, yet it is scarcely feasible or necessary in the eyes of the school superintendent. If history is the story of mankind, he believes it need not include merely past politics. Human relationships are manifold, social, economic, and political. All of the activities of man must be included in the new history course. How he gains his food, his shelter, his clothing, his relationship to his fellowmen, and the obligation owed to a protecting and democratic government, he believes are as much a part of the history course as the recital of dynastic changes. A study of the family as the basis of society, of the states made up of these families, with their organized group life, should be parts of his history course. We need not only to "revitalize" our history course, but to "remake" it, if we are to retain our present status. The sociologist is now claiming a definite place in the curriculum and in many instances he is getting it. The economist is likewise insisting upon more time for his subject. In many cases there is little correlation between these subjects and the history courses whose places they have taken or have followed. Yet the average high school pupil will be far less interested and satisfied with a course purely sociological or economic than with one in which a combination of these aspects is made with specific historical data. The boy or girl of the average high school age is not interested in abstraction nor in theoretical discussion. Civics, of course, has been in the elementary and secondary course of study and has established a place for itself. Yet none of these subjects proves so valuable when isolated from history. It is the historian who has the opportunity of shaping a course of study in which there shall not be less history but more history than in the past, but with a new emphasis and answering the requirements laid down by those demanding more social studies.

A year of social science work is now accorded in nearly every year of school, either as an elective or as a required study. The four units of social science work which Professor Violette mentioned as likely to be required of all high school students represents the departure from the traditional history course by an N. E. A. committee of a short time ago, which has found general acceptance among public school administrators. However, those who have followed this course are looking for a course in the first year of the regular high school with more meat in it. As generally taught, community civics is given a full year, whereas it has subject matter for about one-half year. Had this course been designed in such a way that an historic background be given the problems presented, it would prove far more fruitful.

Gradually the social studies have been acquiring a bigger place in the curriculum, but as more time has been given the social studies in general history as a content subject has been accorded less. Unless historians are willing to change the *status quo* of their subject, there will be much less time allotted in the future than at the present. Naturally we object to giving time to other social studies which we have felt justly is ours. Alternate arrangements such as are

found where there is a new type of course are eliminating much historical data that should be presented. The ideal arrangement, of course, would make it possible for the social studies to be presented by people so well trained in all of the subjects that there would be constant correlation. But this is not the case, and in the present state of disorganization found in the other social studies, history has much the greater advantage. Parallel arrangements are scarcely to be expected at the present, and the alternate arrangement pursued tends to ignore much essential historical material. The unified plan, as Mr. Tryon said, we are not equipped to produce. It would seem then, that with the advantage of priority of position in the curriculum and of organization, that the historian could devise some means to preserve his subject in the curriculum in a way that will meet the demands of modern education and yet which will not destroy the intrinsic value of history. Surely this can be done by a combination of two of the possible adjustments suggested, that is, a combination of the alternate plan of course with the unified plan. In other words, let us devise a course of study which gives a place to some facts which are considered a part of sociology, to some in political science, and to some in economics, yet presented with an historical background and through historical instances.

Courses in the college are naturally of a more specialized character than those found in the elementary and secondary fields. The great mass of children who attend the public schools send few representatives to higher institutions of learning, hence it is far more essential that the courses in the elementary and secondary schools should be definitely outlined than the course in college. The leaders in all of the social science fields should attempt a program embodying a unified scheme.

In thinking of the present state of agitation regarding the content of social science courses, one is reminded of one of Aesop's fables in which a general council of mice was held for the purpose of outwitting the common enemy, the cat. Said one of the mice, "You will all agree that our chief danger lies in the manner in which the cat approaches," and suggested that a bell be procured and placed around the neck of the cat. Thus they would always know when the cat was near. But in taking a census of the council it was found that there was no one able to "bell the cat." It is before us to "bell the cat" and to offer some program which will prove constructive, satisfying, and teachable.

Discussion of the Papers

BY LOUISE IRBY, NORTH CAROLINA STATE
COLLEGE FOR WOMEN

Professor Violette calls attention to the fact that to a large extent the college problem in regard to the social studies must wait upon the solution of the school problem. In the same way, the problem of the high school, or of the junior and senior high schools, depends upon the lower grades. One trouble we have had in trying to form a program has been that we

have not attempted to see the problem as a whole. Attempts have been made at times to form a program for the twelve grades, but circumstances have generally led to the consideration of a narrower field. In regard to the college program, the relative merits of the two ways of effecting an adjustment in the social sciences, as suggested by Professor Violette, will depend to a great extent on the training the student has had in the social sciences before entering college.

In regard to the school program as distinct from that of the college, Professor Tryon sees the tendency toward three adjustments: the independent and parallel programs for history and the other social studies; one program in which history and the other social studies alternate; and a program in which the courses are the result of the blending of the various social studies. His suggestion as to the solution of the problem is a program in which history and the other social studies are blended for the first three grades, and after that are independent and parallel courses.

It would seem that the greatest need is for the formulation of the aims of the social studies. Without these aims definitely stated, we have not the standards to judge the merits of any program. Instead of saying that history and other social studies should blend for the first three grades and be entirely distinct throughout the rest of the high school course, it might be best to see what groups of courses will best promote the definite aims set forth. In regard to history, definite aims have been set forth from time to time, but often those trying to formulate a program have had different sets of aims.

When one is considering the aims of education in general and of history in particular, one cannot ignore the claim that all education is for citizenship. For the last few years this idea has been greatly stressed, to a great extent, no doubt, because of the recent war. In April, 1919, a Committee on Teaching Citizenship was organized. The aim of the committee was "to encourage the education of boys and girls of the United States concerning the origin and development of liberty, co-operation and democracy; the economic, political and social problems confronting democracy today; the responsibility of citizens in a democracy, and the ends and values of living." The committee was frankly a 'propaganda committee' to give publicity to the Report of the Committee on Social Studies of the National Educational Association, and similar material showing the need for social studies in the secondary school. From February through June of 1920, there appeared in THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK a Department of Social Studies in which were published articles by members of the committee and various accounts of activity in regard to the social studies in the school and in various associations. For instance, an account was given of an address that was delivered before the Southern Sociological Congress in Washington by Dr. Charles A. Ellwood on "Education for Citizenship in a Democracy." In this address Dr. Ellwood said that the social studies should be fundamental and in the

curricula of our schools from the kindergarten to college, and should occupy not less than one-third of the student's time.

A part of the same movement of education for citizenship was the formation of the Committee on History and Education for Citizenship. The National Board for Historical Service, an organ of the American Historical Association, was asked by the National Educational Association to appoint a committee to consider the entire series of problems connected with the teaching of history in both the primary and secondary schools. A committee consisting of five members was appointed. When the Council of the American Historical Association decided to take over the committee, it added three members to the original number.

As the name of the committee suggests, the starting point was the idea of education for citizenship. There soon appeared a program for the first eight grades based on the report of the former Committee of Eight, but with certain changes so that "Problems in American Democracy" might be given in the eighth grade. At this time, the committee did not have ready definite proposals for the high school course, although it was understood there would be two years of history including Modern History and United States History. After this tentative program for the first eight grades appeared, the members of the committee received advice from others not on the committee. There then appeared a school program extending from the second grade through the twelfth. In the elementary school, the making of the community and the making of the United States comprised the course. In the junior high school, American History in its world setting was presented; and in the senior high school, the Modern World. This is the program that was the basis of discussion at the meeting of this association in Cleveland. By March, 1920, the committee announced that it was impractical at present to try to put into effect the program for the elementary school given in the last report, so it proposed carrying out the recommendations of the earlier Committee of Eight. A tentative course for civics in the first eight grades prepared by the Committee on Social Studies of the N. E. A. was given. For the high school, the minimum requirements were modern world history and American history for the tenth and eleventh grades, with the additional required courses of industrial organization and civics for the ninth grade, and of Problems of American Democracy for the twelfth grade.

Last year at the History Conference in Washington, Professor Johnson gave an account of the confusion of conflicting theories as to the place assigned to history among the social studies. He explained how there is no systematic study of history in schools. The past is used as occasion arises to illuminate current events, to impress festivals and holidays, to enforce moral or civic ideas, to stimulate love and reverence for present institutions, without consideration of history as a special branch of learning. As need arises, subject boundaries are crossed without regard to the subjects as such. When history is

accorded the dignity of being a separate school study, it is controlled by present interests and problems. History should describe as accurately as possible and explain as adequately as possible the past itself. In planning a program in history, the aim should be to trace human development in such a way as to have the pupils gain definite impressions of continuity, and to have some conscious training in the historical method of arriving at the truth. This is Professor Johnson's interpretation of the plan followed by the committee.

During the year there have appeared syllabi for the courses proposed by the Committee on History and Education for Citizenship for the ninth, tenth and eleventh grades. In connection with one of the syllabi, it was stated that in the tentative program of eighteen months ago, there was the idea of developing a course in history throughout the twelve years of school and that is an ideal to strive for, but only the initial steps toward that goal might be taken. It was also stated that the committee was willing to see their own subject sacrificed if by doing so the demands of citizenship training would be more satisfactorily realized. The committee attempted to harmonize the conflicting claims of the social studies and to give each the time and place it was entitled by its inherent power to educate for citizenship.

It is evident from the changes that took place in the recommendations of this committee, that there was not unity in the aims sought by the members of the committee and those consulted by the committee. The idea of education for citizenship has aroused great interest in the social studies and has paved the way for a greater proportion of time to be given the social studies in the elementary and high schools. Yet, there is a danger in the idea of education for citizenship. What the social studies other than history may do to promote better citizenship, the ones primarily interested in those studies must decide. In regard to history, I do not agree with those who say that they are willing to sacrifice history as a subject if it is necessary for better citizenship. History as a special subject has a function that could not be served by breaking down subject lines. The note struck in the following statement is a hopeful sign. "Emotional interest in Americanization and training for citizenship has about run its course. Thoughtful people have concluded that there is little difference between education and training for citizenship. Each of the social studies must have certain definite aims to justify its existence, and these aims should be definitely formulated."

An organization which was formed last March that may be of help in solving the problems connected with the social studies, is the National Council for Social Studies. The idea of such a council grew out of a Roundtable held monthly by Social Science teachers in the vicinity of Chicago. Officers were elected at a meeting in Atlantic City. The executive committee is composed of these officers, and the chairman of the committees on school problems of the American Economic Association, the American Historical Association, the American Political Science

Association and the American Sociological Society. An Advisory Board of fifteen members will assist in the organization. The purpose is "to bring about the association and co-operation of teachers of social studies—history, government, economics, sociology, etc.,—and of administrators, supervisors, teachers of education and others interested in obtaining the maximum results in education for citizenship through social studies." Arrangement has been made for THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK to publish material for the council.

If the members of the associations that represent the different social studies formulate the aims of the respective groups, and then meet together in such an organization with administrators and others interested, desirable adjustments may be made between history and the other social studies.

General Discussion

Professor F. M. Fling, of the University of Nebraska, in discussing the topic from the floor, pointed out that the fable of the lion and the lamb was likely to be repeated in some of these efforts to harmonize the relations between history and the other social studies. History was likely to be the lamb. The point of view was the distinguishing characteristic of history. The historian sees the past as a whole, what man had been driving at. "Have we not learned yet that we are old world citizens?" The only way he saw out of the present *impasse* was to say that a world society *does* exist. Both the sociologist and the historian deal with the facts of social life. The historian selects the unique facts and organizes them as a changing whole. He feared that history would not be maintained side by side with the other social sciences. Society today has lost its way in the wilderness; too many people were taking the point of view of a hundred years ago.

Professor Trenholme of the University of Missouri, pointed out that history has now become a social science and we were hearing a good deal about "socialized history." We were losing a little bit of our point of view as professional historians; we were willing to loan history to citizenship but not to give it up for citizenship. This would not be necessary or desirable. He agreed with the view held by Professor Fling. He wished to protest against sacrificing history too far; there should rather be an effort at adaptation. If we are going to mass our material in the high school in two volumes we might just as well not have any history at all. History must be made a study worth while. He questioned Professor Violette's statistics as to the decline of history in colleges and universities. In certain institutions it was never so popular as now. He approved of a citizenship course in the college or university, but insisted that it did not necessarily prepare the student for the study of college history.

Professor Paxson, of the University of Wisconsin, thought that some of his historical friends needed to be soothed. "History is in the schools; social sciences are outside and asking to get in. When they convince the public that they are entitled to get in, they

will get in." History, like other subjects, suffered from poor teaching and bad organization. The solution was not that of throwing history out. Some want to throw history out of history. The trouble is that those in the university do not know enough history and the same is true of teachers in the secondary schools. We needed to be open-minded and hopeful.

One of the professors at Dartmouth described their freshman course in the Problems of Citizenship. They had selected a series of problems of concern to the people today. He pointed out how the course was organized and illustrated the method followed. The relations of capital and labor constituted the first problem. The method employed he characterized as the "cold bath method." They plunged the students in head first. The interest had been keen from the outset. The course had shaken men loose from "the crystallized mind." The economics department had proceeded on the foundations laid in this introductory course. At the end of the course two to three recitations had been given over to informing the men as to what the college offered in the social sciences.

Mr. Page, of the Teachers College at De Kalb, Ill., questioned whether the discussion had confined itself to the topic. He did not think that we must *abandon* history or *annex* the social sciences. He illustrated the general relation between them as to aim by quoting from the introduction to the department's statement of courses in this field.

Mr. H. R. Tucker, of the Cleveland High School, St. Louis, said that there was not so much difference of opinion as to the relation of the various social sciences to one another as would seem on the surface, at least so far as the high school is concerned. It is largely a matter of viewpoint, that is, when the history is taught, the civic-economic-sociological bearing of the historical event and development is injected as an illustration of the practical nature of the work; and when the other social sciences are taught, history is drawn upon in comparing conditions of today with other times. The high school teacher would not "scrap" the history, either by substituting courses or by changing the content; the main thread of study would be along the line of the name of the course, the other social sciences being drawn upon simply to illuminate the course, to enliven the work. The high school teacher does not believe in a general social science course in substitution for the various distinct social sciences. Times have changed, though, from the period of instruction of a quarter of a century ago; and so the high school teacher believes that the old traditional four-year course in history must give way to some of the other social sciences. In this way the education of the child is kept in touch with his rapidly-changing environment, which is civic, economic, sociological, as well as historical.

The failure of the examinations now set by the college and school examining boards in history to conform to the newer division of the field and present-day emphasis resulted in the passing of a resolution to be referred to the Council of the Association. This has been stated at length in the general account of the St. Louis meeting.

Recent Tendencies and Problems in the Study and Interpretation of History—An Outline Syllabus with References

BY HARRY ELMER BARNES, PH.D., PROFESSOR OF HISTORY IN CLARK UNIVERSITY

I. GENERAL NATURE AND PURPOSE OF THE SYLLABUS

1. To offer an opportunity for students and teachers of history to reflect upon the nature of their subject and to arrive at a sane judgment of its aims and province.
2. Vast difference between a knowledge *of* and knowledge *about* a subject.
 - A. Most teachers, and some students, of history have a knowledge of at least certain categories of objective historical facts; yet few of either have the slightest knowledge of or interest in what history is, should be, or what it should aim to achieve.
 - B. Most teachers of history follow this profession because of interest in the subject and as the most congenial method of earning a living through pedagogical effort.
 - C. Few reflect upon whether their teaching will aid in explaining the past, make anyone really the wiser, create better citizens, or develop thoughtful reflections on the development of the human race.
3. Yet a knowledge of the nature, purposes, methods and history of a subject is the first prerequisite to an adequate comprehension of it.
 - A. Rarity with which historians apply this basic premise of the historical point of view to their own subject.

Readings:—

Barnes, H. E., "The Past and the Future of History," in *Historical Outlook*, February, 1921.

Lamprecht, K., *What is History?* Chap. i.

Marvin, F. S., *The Living Past*, Chap. i.

Robinson, J. H., *The New History*, Chap. i.

Spencer, H., *Study of Sociology*, Preface, pp. iv-v.

Wells, H. G., "History for Everybody," *Yale Review*, July, 1921.

II. THE DEVELOPMENT OF HISTORY

1. History not a static subject, but, like other products of culture, a continually advancing and progressing subject.
 - A. The manner in which it reflects the world-outlook of a given time and locality.
2. Preliminaries of history.
3. Oriental origins of historical writing.
4. Characteristics of classical historiography.
5. Christianity and history.
6. Medieval annals and chronicles.
7. Humanism, editing of texts, origin of printing.
8. The religious reaction and historical writing in the 16th and 17th centuries.
9. Rationalism and historiography.

10. The Romantic reaction and the writing of history.
11. Nationalism and history.
12. Development of critical historical scholarship.
13. Science, criticism, modern industrialism and recent tendencies towards a broader scope of historical interests.

A. Absence of any general appropriation of these advances by conventional historians.

Readings:—

Barnes, H. E., "History: Its Rise and Development," *Encyclopedia Americana*.

Croce, B., *The Theory and Practice of History*, Part II.

Robinson, J. H., "The New History," Chap. ii.

Shotwell, J. T., "History," *Encyclopedia Britannica*.

Shotwell, J. T., "The Interpretation of History," in *American Historical Review*, July, 1913.

Stephens, H. M., *History*.

See also the detailed special treatments of the history of history by Shotwell, Bury, Peter, Hayes, Balzani, Masson, Gairdner, Wegele, Fueter, Gooch, Jameson and Bassett.

III. THE REACTION OF BIOLOGY, ANTHROPOLOGY AND ARCHEOLOGY ON HISTORY

1. Significance of evolutionary biology for history.
 - A. Development of the theory of evolution.
 - B. The dynamic basis of history.
 - (1) Nothing fixed, final, or transcendental.
 - (2) Everything the product of change and development.
 - (3) The genetic point of view.
 - a. Contrast with providential causation.
 - (4) Limitations on applying biological formulae directly to sociology or history.
 - C. The new time perspective.
2. Anthropology and history.
 - A. Primitive background of ancient peoples.
 - (1) See Eduard Meyer's *History of Antiquity*.
 - B. Primitive survivals among all peoples.
 - (1) Institutional.
 - (2) Psychological traits.
 - C. Study of the evolution of culture and institutions.
 - (1) Essential to the explanation of the life, industry and culture of any people, ancient or modern.
 - D. The laws of cultural development.
 - (1) Evolutionary or classical viewpoint.
 - a. Biological terminology, independent development, uniformity and sequence of institutional growth.
 - (2) The theory of the diffusion of culture.
 - (3) Historico-psychological reconstruction.

3. Archeology and history.

- A. Value for the pre-literary period.
- B. Reconstruction of the culture of historic peoples.
- C. Significant results for history.
 - (1) Pre-historic archeology.
 - (2) Oriental archeology.
 - (3) Aegean archeology.
 - (4) Celtic archeology.
 - (5) American archeology.

Readings:—

- Article "Archeology" in *Encyclopedia Britannica*.
 Barnes, H. E., "History: Its Rise and Development," *Encyclopedia Americana*, Vol. 14, pp. 206, 254-7.
 Boas, F., *The Mind of Primitive Man*, Chaps. v-viii.
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 Haddon, A. C., *History of Anthropology*, Chaps. iv-viii.
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 Marett, R. R., *Anthropology*, Chaps. i-ii.
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 Thomas, W. I., *Source-Book for Social Origins*, Introduction.
 Wells, H. G., *Outline of History*, Vol. I, Chaps. iii-viii.
 White, A. D., *Warfare between Science and Theology*, Vol. I, Chaps. i, vii.
 Tylor, E. B., *Anthropology*, Chaps. viii-xi.

IV. THE NEWER PERSPECTIVE OF HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT

1. Older idea of man as created by special divine act on Friday, October 23, 4004 B. C., 9 A. M.
 - A. Definite providential origin.
 - B. Divine nature of all of man's equipment and surroundings.
2. The doctrine of the "fall of man" and its consequences for the interpretation of history.
 - A. Descent from pristine perfection.
 - B. Impossibility of advancing beyond this parasitical condition and the improbability of regaining it.
 - C. The best state of man in the past rather than in the future.
3. Modern conception of the immense duration of the life of man on the earth and of his gradual development from a bestial condition.
 - A. Gradual development of humanity biologically and culturally.
 - B. Great cultural importance of period before 4004 B. C.
 - C. Capability of improvement.

D. Dynamic, progressive and optimistic view of history.

- E. Dependence of human progress on advances in culture.
 - (1) Reliance on nurture rather than on nature.
 - (2) Problem of the artificial acceleration of progress.
- F. Historic basis for patience with our present imperfection in the light of the long historic development of our institutions.
 - (1) Exaggerations of this point of view by the conservatives.

4. Historic and scientific basis for a sound theory of progress.

- A. Late origins of a theory of progress.
 - (1) Limitations on theories of progress in the 18th century.
- B. Foundations of a valid theory of progress in the advances in natural and social science in the 19th century.

Readings:—

- Boni and Liveright (Pubs.), *Evolution in Modern Thought*.
 Bury, J. B., *History of the Freedom of Thought*.
 Bury, J. B., *The Idea of Progress*, Introduction.
 Breasted, J. H., *Ancient Times*, Chap. i.
 Huxley, T. H., *Essays*, Vols. I, IV, V, VII, IX.
 Marvin, F. S., *The Living Past*, Chap. ii; *Progress and History*, Chaps. i-ii.
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 Schurman, J. G., *The Ethical Import of Darwinism*.
 Robinson, J. H., *The New History*, Chap. viii.
 Wallas, G., *Our Social Heritage*, Chaps. i-ii.
 Ward, Lester F., *Outlines of Sociology*, Part II.
 White, A. D., *Warfare between Science and Theology*, Vol. I, Chaps. vi, viii-x.

V. HISTORICAL CHRONOLOGY AND THE PERIODIZING OF HISTORY

1. The development of attempts to construct chronology.
 - A. Religious and mystical elements in the discovery of time.
 - B. Subjective religious or national basis.
 - C. Modernity or recency of starting point.
 - (1) 6000 B. C. the oldest orthodox date.
2. The newer chronology.
 - A. Astronomical background.
 - B. Geological ages.
 - C. The paleontological record.
 - D. The human period.
 - (1) Stone ages.
 - a. Eolithic.
 - b. Paleolithic.
 - c. Neolithic.
 - (2) The metal ages.
 - a. Copper.
 - b. Bronze.
 - c. Iron.
 - (3) The agrarian age in western society to 1750.

- (4) The era of capital, industrialism, and urban civilization since the Industrial Revolution.
 - a. Transition from the age of the tool to the age of the machine.
3. Reaction of this on conception of history.
 - A. Ancient history from origins of man to metal ages (3000 B. C.)
 - B. Modern history from Oriental period to 1750.
 - a. Reversion to primitive in early middle ages.
 - C. Contemporary history since Industrial Revolution.
4. Periodizing of history.
 - A. The history of our present method of periodizing historical development.
 - (1) Ancient, medieval and modern.
 - B. Weaknesses of this classification.
 - (1) Inadequate nature of the divisions and the inaccurate or irrelevant basis for them.
 - C. Dangers and difficulties in the periodizing of history.
 - (1) Continuity of history makes all periodizing of little value or validity except for convenience and pedagogical aid.
 - (2) Danger in using the history of a single state or section of the world as the basis for dividing the history of the world.
 - a. The subjective element.
 - b. Contrast between cultures of England, Russia, China and Japan in 1825; yet all included in modern period.
 - (3) Cannot hope to have periods which will be equally accurate and significant for all phases of cultural growth.
 - a. Some phases of culture move much more rapidly than others.
 - (1) E. g., industry and science as compared with religion, ethics and education.
 - b. Our present condition in western world in which technology is very advanced, and social, religious and ethical institutions largely medieval.
 - (4) Probability that for accurate divisions of history the periodizing must be pluralistic.
 - a. Different for various phases of cultural evolution and different countries.
 - D. The socio-psychic interpretation of the sequence of the cultural periods by Lamprecht and Breysig.

Readings:—

- Burr, G. L., in *American Historical Review*, July, 1915, pp. 813-14.
 Chapin, F. S., *An Historical Introduction to Social Evolution*, Chap. iii.
 Croce, B., *The Theory and Practice of History*, Part I, Chap. vii.
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- Lamprecht, K., *What is History?* Chaps. ii-iv.
 Shotwell, J. T., "Middle Ages," in *Encyclopedia Britannica*.
 Shotwell, J. T., *Introduction to the History of History*.
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 Webster, H., *Rest Days*.
 Wells, H. G., *Outline of History*, Books I-II.
 White, A. D., *Warfare between Science and Theology*, Vol. I, Chap. vi.

VI. GEOGRAPHICAL FACTORS IN HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT

1. Growth of a body of doctrine concerning the relation of geography to history.
 - A. Anthropogeography from Hippocrates to Ratzel.
2. Some notable contributions of anthropogeography to history.
3. The degree to which geographical data has been appropriated by historians.
 - A. Some significant work by special writers, but no general appreciation by students of history of the importance of the geographic factor.
 - B. Conventional historiography and "chromatic politics."
 - (1) Historian's interest in geography normally limited to the shifts in political boundaries.
4. Synthetic history and regional geography.
 - A. Not a problem of geographical determinism.
 - B. Rather one of man and nature evolving together.
 - (1) "Every geographical problem must be studied historically and every historical problem must be studied geographically."
 - C. Technology and geography the basic factors in social dynamics.
 - D. The natural geographic region as a unit of social development and historical investigation.
 - E. Historical sectionalism and geography.
 - F. Geography and the growing appreciation of world history.
 - (1) Comparable to the time element introduced by biology, archeology and anthropology.
5. Criticism of the doctrine of geographic determinism.
 - A. Geographic factors are conditioning influences rather than determinants of culture.
 - (1) Man and culture the dynamic elements.

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- Atwood, W. W., "The New Meaning of Geography in American Education," *School and Society*, February, 1921.
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Lowie, R. H., *Culture and Ethnology*, Chap. iii.
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 Turner, F. J., *The Frontier in American History*.
 Turner, F. J., "Sectionalism in the United States" in *Cyclopedia of American Government*, Vol. III., pp. 280-285.

VII. THE EXPANSION OF THE SCOPE OF HISTORY

1. History in the past chiefly concerned with theological considerations or politics.
 - A. Theological history.
 - (1) Engaged in making clear God's ways to man.
 - (2) Progress of this form of history from the author of Chronicles-Ezra-Nehemiah to Augustine, Baronius, Bossuet, Pastor Russell and Chancellor Day.
 - (3) Present anachronisms in historical interpretation arising from this cause.
 - B. History as Past Politics.
 - (1) State assumed to embody all society and all culture.
 - a. Influence of Hegelian philosophy.
 - (2) History of this interpretation from Thucydides to Machiavelli, Droysen and Freeman.
 - (3) Absurdity and narrowness of this point of view.
2. Tendency to broaden the scope of historical interests.
 - A. Various phases of this progressive movement, produced chiefly by the cultural developments of the last century.
 - B. Contrast in set of interests represented by Ranke, Freeman, Gardiner, Wakeman, Rhodes or volumes of the *Cambridge Historical Series* with the works of Lamprecht, Breysig, Blok, Rambaud, Altamira, Green, Pollard, Marvin, Abbott, Breasted, Robinson, Hayes, Schapiro and Turner.
 - C. Present concern with science, industry, art, literature, philosophy, ethics, religion, etc.
 - (1) Necessity of describing every phase of the life and culture of a society.
 - (2) Probable necessity of co-operative work in the future in producing adequate national histories.
3. The extension of the geographical range of the historian's interests.
 - A. Modern synthetic history progressively becoming world history.

Readings:—

Barnes, H. E., *Encyclopedia Americana*, Vol. 14, pp. 251-60.
 Becker, C., "Some Aspects of the Influence of Social Problems and Ideas upon the Study and Writing of History," in *Publications of the American Sociological Society*, 1912.
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 Croce, B., *The Theory and Practice of History*, Part I.

Gooch, G. P., *History and Historians in the Nineteenth Century*, Chap. xxviii.

Helmolt, H., *The World's History*, Vol. I, Chaps. i-ii.

Lamprecht, K., *What is History?* Chap. i.
 Robinson, J. H., *The New History*, Chap. v.
 Seeley, J. R., *The Expansion of England*, Part I, Chap. v.

Seligman, E. R. A., *The Economic Interpretation of History*.

Shepherd, W. R., "The Expansion of Europe," *Political Science Quarterly*, 1919.

VIII. THE INTERPRETATION OF HISTORY.

1. This the final stage in the handling of historical data and in the development of historical science.
2. The problem of the interpretation of history.
 - A. Is there any law, repetition or meaning in historical phenomena?
 - (1) No necessary implication of teleology in an affirmative answer.
 - B. Danger of a subjective interpretation.
 - (1) Use of history to substantiate a particular thesis or bias.
 - a. Special prevalence of this in religious history.
 - b. Also in political history.
3. Leading interpretations of history.
 - A. Political.
 - B. Biographical—great man theory.
 - C. Spiritual interpretation.
 - D. Scientific and technological.
 - E. Economic.
 - F. Geographical.
 - G. Sociological.
4. Need for a synthetic interpretation.
 - A. The growth of the collective-psychological interpretation.
 - (1) Possibility within this interpretation of the consideration of a wide range of influences and conditioning factors.
 - (2) The work of Lamprecht, Breysig and Steinhausen.
 - (3) Improvement of Lamprecht's position in work of Robinson, Shotwell, Becker, Breasted, *et al.*

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Adams, E. D., *The Power of Ideals in American History*.

Barnes, H. E., "The Historian and the History of Science," in *Scientific Monthly*, August, 1920; "Psychology and History," in *American Journal of Psychology*, October, 1919.

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Carlyle, T., *Heroes and Hero Worship*.

James, Wm., *The Will to Believe and Other Essays in Popular Philosophy*, pp. 216-262.

Koller, A. H., *The Theory of Environment*.

Matthews, S., *The Spiritual Interpretation of History*, Chap. i.

Robinson, J. H., "Mind in the Making," in *Harper's Magazine*, 1920.

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Stewart, H. L., "Carlyle's Conception of History," in *Political Science Quarterly*, December, 1917.

Teggart, F. J., *Processes of History*, Chap. iv.

Thayer, W. R., *The Art of Biography*.

IX. HISTORY AND THE SOCIAL SCIENCES.

1. Significance of the problems of genesis for all the social sciences.

2. The necessity for the historian to concern himself with the many-sided activities of man in society.

A. Indispensable aid of the social sciences in historical synthesis.

3. The relation between history and sociology.

4. The relation between history and economics.

5. The relation between history and politics and jurisprudence.

6. The relation between history and psychology.

7. The relation between history and anthropology.

8. The relation between history and ethics.

Readings:—

As in previous section and—

Barnes, H. E., *The Social History of the Western World*, Part I.

Beard, C. A., *Politics, a Lecture*.

Beard, C. A., *Economic Interpretation of the Constitution*, Chap. i.

Becker, loc. cit.

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Johnson, H., *The Teaching of History*, Chap. xv.

Myers, P. V. N., *History as Past Ethics*.

Robinson, J. H., *The New History*, Chaps. iii, v.

Sumner, W. G., *Folkways*.

X. THE CHIEF CAUSES OF BIAS AND DISTORTION OF FACTS IN THE TEACHING AND WRITING OF HISTORY.

1. The errors which result from too narrow or superficial a view of historical material.

A. This variety of error has co-existed usually with the most exacting scholarship in sifting the data used.

B. Can only be remedied by adopting the synthetic point of view.

2. Difficulty in securing an objective and unprejudiced view of historical data.

A. Bias and subjectivity normally exist in the sources.

B. The prejudices and sub-conscious complexes of the historical investigator.

3. Some of the more important causes of bias and partisanship in historical writing.

A. Religion.

B. Race.

C. Nationality and patriotism.

D. Partisan zeal.

E. Economic interests.

F. Eulogy of the old and misunderstood—spontaneous generation of the historical epic.

G. Propagandist exploitation of history by the vested interests.

(1) Perversion of popular notions of history by newspapers and popular orators.

H. The personal equation—prejudices and complexes of the individual historians—which may arise from any of the above and from their personal experiences.

4. The American Revolution as an example of biased presentation of history.

5. Obstacles to presentation of history in a frank and candid manner in the case of teachers capable and desirous of doing so.

A. Jeopardy of professional position.

(1) Examples of Ross, E. B. Andrews, et al.

(2) Almost complete repression of individuality and independence among secondary school teachers of history as result of school board politics and tyranny.

(3) Unofficial inquisitorial supervision of historical teaching and textbooks by representatives of vested economic, religious, partisan, and patriotic interests.

B. Misconceptions in minds of pupils due to inaccurate earlier instruction.

(1) Tenacity of errors early inculcated.

C. Popular prejudices and misconceptions.

(1) Difficulty for most individuals to go contrary to herd opinion.

D. Demand for that which is "proper" rather than true in school textbooks.

Readings:—

Altschul, C., *The American Revolution in Our School Textbooks*.

Barnes, H. E., *Encyclopedia Americana*, Vol. 14, pp. 224-6, 234-43.

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School and Society, September 3, 1921, pp. 129-36.

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Stephens, H. M., "Nationality and History," in *American Historical Review*, January, 1916.

Teggart, F. J., *Prolegomena to History*, Chap. iii.

Trotter, W., *Instincts of the Herd in Peace and War*.

XI. SOME IMPORTANT INSTANCES OF A MISINTERPRETATION OF SIGNIFICANT HISTORICAL EPISODES OR MOVEMENTS WHICH STILL PERSIST AND DISTORT HISTORICAL TEACHING AND WRITING.

1. The racial interpretation of European history.
 2. The notion of the Orient as a degenerative and negative influence on the classical world.
 3. The mythical Greek *a la* Francis Galton and J. P. Mahaffy.
 4. The "fall" of Rome—causes and date.
 5. The nature of the barbarian invasions, and the relative influence of the Celt and Teuton in the medieval period.
 6. The prevailing conception of the nature of the "Middle Ages."
 7. The Magna Carta as a democratic and popular achievement.
 8. The popular origins of representative government.
 9. The Renaissance or Reformation as the origins of modern times.
 10. The Turkish occupation of the Oriental trade routes as the cause of overseas exploration and colonization.
 11. The French Revolution as a great and unique episode in European and world history.
 - A. Merely a local manifestation of the political results of the Commercial Revolution.
 - B. The conventional subordination of the infinitely more significant Industrial Revolution.
 12. The Anglo-Saxon myth as the racial basis of English and American liberties.
 13. The American Revolution as popularly presented.
 14. The Constitution of the United States as a popular and democratic document in its derivation and ratification.
 15. The "Fathers" as a generation possessed of unique and matchless public and private virtue.
 16. The American court system as beyond all economic and other disturbing influences.
 17. The real causes for the failure of American "democracy."
 18. Tendency towards patriotic glorification of the political institutions of one's own country.
 19. The conventional patriotic interpretation of current international relations.
 20. The assumption that reliable current history can be secured from newspapers.
- Readings:—*
- Adams, J. T., *The Founding of New England*.
- Babcock, W. H., "The Races of Britain," in *Scientific Monthly*, February, 1916.
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- McKeechne, W. S., *Magna Carta: a Commentary*.
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- Myers, G., *History of the Supreme Court*.
- Myers, G., *History of Great American Fortunes*.
- Nearing, S., *The American Empire*.
- Perla, L., *What is National Honor?*
- Ripley, W. Z., *Races of Europe*, Chap. xvii.
- Robinson, J. H., *The New History*, Chap. vi;
- Petrarch, Second edition, Introduction; "Reformation," in *Encyclopedia Britannica*; "Mind in the Making," *Harper's Magazine*, 1920.
- Scott, J. B., *Patriots in the Making*.
- Seeley, J. R., *The Expansion of England*, Part I, Chap. v.
- Seignobos, C., *Medieval and Modern Civilization*, Chap. xvii.
- Sinclair, U., *The Brass Check*.
- Smith, G. A., *The Spirit of the American Government*.
- Smith, Preserved, *The Age of the Reformation*, Chaps. xi-xiv.
- Van Tyne, C. H., *The American Revolution*.
- Wevl. W., *The New Democracy*.

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Book Reviews

EDITED BY PROF. J. MONTGOMERY GAMBRILL,
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BRYCE, JAMES. *Modern Democracies*. New York.
The Macmillan Company, 1921. Two Vols.,
xiv, 508; vi, 676.

This work marks the end of six decades of scholarly and public service which began with the publication of "The Holy Roman Empire," when Mr. Bryce was about 24 years of age. During this period have appeared "The American Commonwealth," two volumes of "Studies in History and Jurisprudence," a volume on the peoples of South America, one on South Africa, a collection of biographies, and a number of other works. Yet during most of this time the author was traveling or holding important public office. Few men of our time are so well equipped to write of modern democracies as Mr. Bryce, for with all the scholarship and practical experience which his career represents, he has been a democrat in a sense of the word which he sets aside in the writing of this present treatise—the sense which makes it apply to those who are not snobs or worshippers of symbols of high estate. He has been a famous mountain climber, and those who have tramped the forests with him say that he is perfectly at home in any circle in which he happens to be—in other words, he is a man, with but few of the limitations which ignorance, provincialism, or narrowness place around most of us.

No brief review can do more than call attention to the outstanding character of such a work as this—the harvest of three-quarters of a century. Every aspect of it shows that the author and the publishers have spared no pains to make it one of the monumental publications of our time, one of the works which will stand with Lowell's "Government of England," to the author of which Mr. Bryce dedicates this work; with "The American Commonwealth"; and with Ostrogorski's "Democracy and the Organization of Political Parties." The table of contents, in its main and lesser divisions, shows the completeness with which the enormous amount of material at the author's disposal has been reduced to order.

There are three parts. The first, consisting of fifteen chapters, deals with the general terms which must be made clear if the succeeding discussion is to be definite. Among these are liberty, equality, the people, public opinion, the press. Here is found an effort to define democracy itself and to show its relation to education, religion, and other kindred matters. The second part, containing forty-two chapters, sets forth democracy as it manifests itself in the governments of France, Switzerland, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, and the United States. While the space is not equally divided among these six great topics, no one is given anything like a lion's share of it. The purpose of this second part is to present the facts of modern democratic effort; the objective realities with which those have to deal who

would argue about the hope which the future has to offer. Mr. Bryce omits a description of the government of England because he has been too near to it, leaving it for such a man as Lowell to handle. The third part is subdivided into three main divisions and twenty-two chapters. The first of these divisions is a critique of democratic institutions in the light of the facts offered in Part II. Among these are the basic governmental functions and their machinery, but there are also such philosophical questions as the utility of a second chamber, the limits of direct legislation by the people, the line between local and central functions, etc. The second division discusses such general topics as money power in politics, responsibility, democracy and the backward races. The third looks to the future and asks what the prospect is for democratic government. Its eight chapters are built around such problems as the communist state, leadership under democratic conditions, the inevitable oligarchy in all organized effort, and the like.

The author leaves a little to be desired in the way of definiteness; but the reply could easily and truthfully be made that the facts do not admit of definiteness. Any one of moderate education can read his chapters with pleasure, just as any one can read Shakespeare; but the philosophy of the work is not open except to him who will devote some effort to his reading. It is a pity that the Great War postponed the publication, for six years ago the author's statements might have had a little less of the philosophical character and a little more of the propagandist. The propagandist of democracy is needed. Mr. Bryce says, "The saddest memories of political life are of moments at which one had to stand by when golden opportunities were being lost, to see the wrong thing done when it would have been easy to do the right thing. But this observation was made by a Persian to a Greek at a dinner party, the night before the battle of Plataea, twenty-four centuries ago, and the world has nevertheless made some advances since then." "Even when one thinks a view unsound or a scheme unworkable, one must regard all human efforts to improve this unsatisfactory world with a sympathy which recognizes how many things need to be changed, and how many doctrines once held irrefragable need to be modified in the light of supervenient facts." He is a little too philosophical; one regrets that with the wisdom of long experience he has not cut into the questions he handles with a little more of the spirit of the "American Commonwealth." He is confident of the future, but he himself tells us, with something of a smile, that he has refused to permit the natural pessimism of old age to enter into his discussion. One wishes he could have winnowed the grain a little more roughly, but if he had he might have wasted or cracked it, for who knows what is grain and what is chaff?

EDGAR DAWSON.

A General History of Europe. By James Harvey Robinson and James Henry Breasted with collaboration of Emma Peters Smith. Ginn and Company, Boston, 1921. xiv, 636 pp. \$2.20.

History of Europe: Ancient and Medieval. By James Harvey Robinson and James Henry Breasted. Ginn and Company, Boston, 1921. xiii, 645 pp. \$1.96.

History of Europe: Our Own Times. By James Harvey Robinson and Charles A. Beard. Ginn and Company, Boston, 1921. xii, 616 pp. \$1.96.

The *General History* is an adaptation and abridgment of the companion volumes, *Ancient Times* and *Medieval Times*, published by the same authors in 1916. The first half of the work has undergone extensive revision and condensation. In the latter part much has been omitted, while considerable new and significant material has been added so as to bring the story to the present. The authors have stressed social and intellectual aspects of man's development, have emphasized the relation between the present and the past, have endeavored to interpret today in the light of yesterday. Inevitably the point of view of the book reflects the aftermath of the World War. The menace of militarism is seen in a new light, and we perceive now that from the days of Jena the Junkers exercised "a fatal influence on the Prussian government" and that the people of Prussia retained "something of their old servile attitude toward their masters." (Robinson, Breasted and Smith, p. 470.) So with the story of Russia, with the growth of imperialism and nationalistic jealousies, the data is so treated as to trace cause and effect and to show how present conditions have come about.

The *General History* essays in its 636 pages to cover the entire field of western civilization from prehistoric days to the present. It is evidently intended to meet the demand that some high schools are now making for a text to be used in their new one-year or year-and-a-half courses in European history. There is everywhere growing a belief that to be rightly understood the narrative of human evolution must be viewed rather rapidly, in one comprehensive sweep. This is at best a difficult undertaking even for a Wells with adults for audience and no limit as to the length of the story. It is another matter, within the restricted compass of a one-volume high school text, to include just the right material to make young students see the drama of human progress steadily and whole, feel its interest, learn its lessons. Obviously the problem is one of wise selection. To retain "only the very important things . . . that are absolutely essential in tracing man's progression" through the ages, to tell a connected, intelligible story vitalized by illustration and significant detail, these are difficult ideals to attain. Nor can it be claimed that the authors of the *General History* have been entirely successful in producing this new type of book. Unhappily their tendency has been, in order to keep within the required limits, to cut away rich illuminating data rather than reduce the number of topics treated, with the result of a text, in many parts dry and lifeless, a series of uninteresting, colorless generalities that will need much elaborating and supplementing on the part of the teacher.

In the other two volumes the faults deprecated above are absent, while the features praised are accentuated. Both books are scholarly, thoroughly modern in tone, well conceived, and well executed. From the opening chapter on *Ancient and Medieval History* to the last page of *Our Own Times* the work is a unit, consistently carried out. Here condensation and adaptation are most skilfully done, while new material has been added and new interpretations incorporated in an entirely acceptable way. Just why, however, in volumes so manifestly intended to follow one another it was deemed wise to repeat, word for word, more than forty pages is not quite clear.

All three volumes are generously illustrated, occasionally with attractively-colored plates, though not all of the pictures are of equal excellence. It is to be regretted that there has not been greater effort to sustain in both volumes the high standard of scholarship and pertinence, both as to the illustrations themselves and the accompanying legends found in the first section of the *Ancient and Medieval* history. There seems slight reason to cumber a good book with such pictures as are to be found in the last dozen pages of *Our Own Times* (pp. 541, 558, 587).

A number of general histories are to be had today, many of them good both in style and detail, but taken all in all, in the whole realm of textbook writers this trio, Robinson, Breasted and Beard, has yet to be surpassed either in scholarship or in a progressive point of view.

LENA C. VAN BIBBER.

Maryland State Normal School.

Ransome, Cyril: *A Short History of England*. New edition. Longmans, Green and Company, London, 1919. xli, 511 pp. \$1.60.

Mowat, R. B.: *A New History of Great Britain*. Oxford University Press, London, 1920. 2 vols. I, 299 pp.; II, 353 pp.

Wyatt-Davies, E.: *A History of England*. New edition, Longmans, Green and Company, New York. 561 pp. \$2.00.

Wyatt-Davies, E.: *An Elementary History of England*. New edition. Longmans, Green and Company, 1920. 278 pp. \$1.20.

These books are written by English authors for use in English schools or in those of the colonies. Whether they are to be employed in the "public" or "national" schools of England does not appear, though the preface of the first makes mention of examinations for the public service and for the army and navy. They are of interest to Americans as examples of a type which has largely disappeared from the schools of this country. That is to say, they are manuals of information, and read like boiled down summaries on which the teacher must use his own judgment in excision and expansion. A well-trained teacher would make excellent use of them, as they are accurate as to the facts and guarded in conclusion, but in the hands of an immature person the pedagogical effect might be depressing. They abound in dates, royal family trees, and character sketches of sovereigns, and the emphasis is heavily political, although the

preface of Mr. Mowat's promises industrial and social matter. Colored maps are lacking, and the maps in black and white, though excellent, contain too many battle plans and too little information on the colonial dominions. Illustrations appear infrequently except in the elementary book, possibly on the theory that pictures and graphs impede the development of abstract thinking.

The volumes by Mr. Wyatt-Davies are intended for parochial schools, and while the writer expressly intends to emphasize religious affairs, no evidence of bias appears, though facts are introduced which writers of an opposite tendency sometimes omit. Mr. Mowat's text breaks farthest from the traditional. His preface gives evidence of pedagogical thinking, the illustrations, type, and paper are excellent, there is some recognition of social and economic matters, and the chapters are refreshingly topical; but he has followed the precedent of the Oxford School in Modern History in closing with the death of the Duke of Wellington.

All in all, the books represent the carefulness of English scholars, the tendency to move forward slowly, and the disinclination to toss political history overboard in favor of economic determinism or "social studies." It seems to be the English idea that history is worth teaching for its own sake, that it should be handled by men who know history, and that patriotic idealism, valuable inference, correlation with current events, and citizenship should find their place, not in the text, but in the actual class room teaching.

R. C. WILLARD.

Ethical Culture School.

Who are the Slavs? A Contribution to Race Psychology. By Paul R. Radosavljevich. R. G. Badger, Boston, 1920. 2 vols. I, 538 pp.; II, 601 pp. \$7.50.

The avowed purpose of this work is to make a contribution to race psychology and through an "impartial scientific investigation of facts" seek "to describe and explain the character of the Slavs as it is shown in temperament, intellect, sentiment, political and religious ideas and ideals, in literature, art, science and social institutions" (I, p. 97). The result of this ambitious effort is a compound for popular consumption largely made up of wholesale characterizations and unfounded generalizations that are often strangely at odds with one another.

Confronted with the task of finding the differentiating marks of the different Slavic peoples the author seems to concern himself simply with how to distribute fairly the array of virtues at his disposal. Thus the Serbo-Croats are gay, impulsive, polite; the Lusatian Serbs are hopeful and honest; the Czechs are intelligent and proud (I, pp. 115-116); the Great Russians are full of sacrificing devotion to Tzar, church and feudal superior (II, p. 267), while the Bulgars naturally are the "Balkan Prussians." The Slavs as a whole are temperamentally melancholy, humanitarian, full of love and sympathy, pious, humble, pacific, mystic, impractical like children yet of a practical spirit (*Sic*), etc. (I, pp. 101, 228, 336).

Intellectually they are truthful, introspective, given to speculations about the fundamental problems of life; volitionally, they possess a strong instinct for self-preservation; and all this either because some foreign writers imagine them to be so or because certain Slavic writers, notably Russian poets, give in their works at different times expression to this or that note. Ethically, their ideals coincide with the real teachings of Jesus (II, pp. 97-99), because Tolstoi based his ethics on such views! Socially they are all born democrats because among the Serbs there still survives a patriarchic family system called *Zadruga*, and also because the author uncritically accepts the Slavophile myth of the Russian *Mir* as a model of economic and moral brotherhood spontaneously created by the Russian people.

Science furnishes no justification for the author's conception of a collective ghost existing over and above the individual members of the group—a "Slavic soul" (II, p. 263). Nor is there better support for the idea of a "Slavic race" possessing blood relationship and a distinct mental structure (I, pp. 89, 135). Experimental investigation, in so far as it has been carried on at all, has failed to reveal any such structure (or special constitution) even among peoples having distinctly and sharply marked physical characteristics; and the term "Slavic," like "Aryan," "Celtic," or "Teutonic," stands only for linguistic affinity.

The work has a rich bibliography, though it is not accompanied by critical comment, which is the more unfortunate because of the material noted is antiquated and worthless.

R.

Our Hellenic Heritage, Vol. I. By H. R. James. Macmillan Company, New York, 1921. 408 pp.

The title of this book, the first of a two volume set, rather makes one expect what it seems to imply. The author in his preface says that Greek itself being dead as a school subject, it is necessary to avoid the irreparable loss if the influences of Greek literature and life pass out of English Public School education. He therefore sets himself the pleasant task of choosing and telling those interesting and admirable things from Greek mythology and history which are to insinuate themselves into the consciousness of the British youth and save them, even in spite of themselves. From that point of view, the word "Heritage" may be justifiable.

This volume is indeed very pleasant and entertaining reading. It gives a few pages to naming the gifts of Hellas, and then in nearly two hundred pages carries us to Mt. Olympus, launches us with the *Argo*, takes us to Troy hot on the trail of Helen, jumps us about with *Odysseus*, and then ties us up to the archaeological biography of Henry Schliemann and his discoveries at Troy and Mycenae. Crete gets rather a short shrift. The rest of the book, with the exception of one chapter on the constitutional growth of Sparta and Athens, is all Persian War. It is nicely told, but at too much length. Here and there are pages of quite uninteresting topographical detail, which are meant to elucidate but which really clutter up the story.

The author introduces many pages of translation from the ancient writers, and in this way does what I fancy to be his justificatory idea of originality, namely, the interspersing of narrative with quotation, rather than separating them into source and text.

It is the genial blitheness of the author in thus telling a story without a word of new material in it that recommends it. No one can read the book without enjoying it, nor will one fail to add to one's belief that the study of Greek things is important, interesting, and, for modern culture, basic.

R. V. D. MAGOFFIN.

Johns Hopkins University.

Early Tudor Poetry (1485-1547). By John M. Berdan, Assistant Professor of English in Yale University. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1920. xvi, 564 pp.

This is a scholarly, inclusive and vividly written account of the much-neglected writers of a too-neglected period. The poets and prose writers of the early Sixteenth Century—Hawes, Skelton, John Heywood, Sir Thomas More, Wyatt, Surrey, and the others—are in every sense forerunners of the great Elizabethans; they are the necessary background for an understanding of the spacious times that followed. During the period studied by Professor Berdan, humanism, medievalism and modernism were blended; not only the chivalric and scholastic, pagan and monastic heritage, but also the contemporary invention of printing, the geographical explorations, the Copernican astronomy, and Protestant Revolution, and the interest in continental literature were contributing to a synthesis. "The first requirement for the critic is not taste, not appreciation," says Professor Berdan, himself lacking in neither of these important if secondary qualifications,—"it is a knowledge of literary history." Not How did they write, but Why did they write as they did, is the question asked of the authors studied. The answer is given in six monographs, each one distinct and an artistic whole: "The Background of the Literature"; "The Medieval Tradition"; "The Scholastic Tradition"; "Humanism"; "The Influence of Contemporary Literatures"; "Henry Howard, Earl of Surrey."

The Recent History of the United States. By Fred-eric L. Paxson. Houghton, Mifflin Company, New York, 1921. 603 pp. \$3.50.

Professor Paxson has condensed into these 600 pages not only all the important facts of our political and economic history from the election of Hayes to the election of Harding, but much other interesting matter, as well, of a kind that is seldom found in textbooks. For example, the chapters on Post-Bellum Ideals (III), Business and Society (VII), The Closed Frontier (XI), Wild West and Sport (XII), Muck-raking and the new Standards (XXXII), and National Resources (XXXIV), each one a very neat little essay, punctuate the narrative with somewhat the same relieving effect as the lighter passages in a Shakespearean tragedy. Wherever, especially, Pax-

son touches on the theme of our Western life, the freshness and originality of his pages show the results of years of devoted study.

One third of the book covers the period from Hayes to McKinley, a second third brings the narrative down to the election of 1912, and the last third is devoted to the presidency of Woodrow Wilson. In this general proportionment of material the author seems to us to have been much more felicitous than in his rigid scheme of chapters, by which the 588 pages of text are cut up, as impartially as a wedding-cake, into packages of ten pages each. A little more flexibility in the pagination of the chapters would not have inconvenienced the student seriously, and would have obviated the necessity for an apparent padding in some places and undue compactness in others.

Professor Paxson's book is of the comprehensive type, which, faced with the dilemma of sacrificing a few facts or driving the reader's mind pretty hard, chooses the latter horn. The transitions are often abrupt, for no time must be lost in getting to the next thing; the allusions are sometimes vague, since adequate explanation would consume precious space. Pages 102-103, for example, illustrate this "discontinuous" encyclopaedic style. Perhaps it is the urge of his abundant material that has tempted the author at times to condense his English into algebraic curt-ness; for example, in phrases like "the terminal associates of industry" (p. 297), "externals reminiscent of the tradition of Lincoln" (p. 307), "the accumulation of potential delegates" (p. 217). There are such ineptitudes of style as "injured by the confusion of darkness" (p. 29), and "the area of free land dwindled around 1885" (p. 100). There are a few slight errors of fact and typographical slips. For example, the Constitution does not contain the phrase "total disability of the President" (p. 54). Horace Greeley and Horace White were not among the "group of great editors that arose after the Civil War" (p. 313); the Pious Fund is called the Pius Fund (p. 348); and the correspondence printed in Bishop's biography of Roosevelt (1,244) shows that Hanna did not continue to "allow the uncertainty of his intentions to worry Roosevelt" in 1903-4 (p. 308).

The dozen chapters at the close of the book dealing with America's part in the World War and the problems of reconstruction are mostly admirably done. Professor Paxson was himself a major, attached to the historical branch of the General Staff, and he found "opportunity to see in action much of the vast machine with which the United States realized its determination to maintain its ideal of democracy." One must say that Major Paxson improved his opportunity.

DAVID S. MUZZEY.

Barnard College.

Revolution from 1789 to 1906. By R. W. Postgate. Houghton, Mifflin & Co., New York, 1921. \$4.50.

Original documents are frequently more interesting and entertaining than histories based upon them. This is especially true of the revolutionary history of Europe. Mr. Postgate has done a valuable service to history teachers by reprinting and editing a long series of revolutionary documents illustrating the French Revolution, the Irish rebellions, Chartism, Revolutions of 1848, the Commune of 1871, and the Russian Revolution of 1905. Each group of documents is prefaced by an excellent introduction and bibliography. The introductions are long, and so well done, that they form almost a continuous narrative of revolutionary history.

Mr. Postgate's selections are based upon a socialist interpretation of history, which narrows the scope of the book. Then too many proclamations are printed. As a rule all proclamations read alike, whether they are issued by English Chartists, French Communards, or Russian Socialists. The book is especially valuable in that it includes the career and writings of Babeuf, and the two most extraordinary documents in the history of socialism—"The Communist Manifesto" and Karl Marx's "The Civil War in France."

The documents illustrating the Russian Revolution of 1905 are interesting in view of the present situation. They show clearly enough the economic aspect of the movement to establish democracy in Russia; how bourgeois, peasants, and workingmen first made common cause against the Tsar, each having a special interest in mind. The reviewer would like to suggest that the author include, in the next edition, Professor Miliukov's pamphlet explaining the reasons for the failure of the Revolution of 1905, by far the best that has appeared on the subject.

J. SALWYN SCHAPIRO.

College of the City of New York.

Book Notes

Professor Edward Raymond Turner's "Europe, 1789-1920" (Doubleday, Page & Co., New York, 1920, 687 pp.) is another college text added to the excellent group of books by Robinson and Beard, Hazen, Hayes and Schapiro. It occupies an intermediate position in scope, being predominantly a political narrative but introducing some paragraphs and a chapter or two on social and economic phases. The standard of accuracy is good; but the book presents nothing new in content or interpretation, its treatment of the Great War is conventional, the chapter on Russia since the Revolution is inadequate, and there are entirely too many easy generalizations which leave the reader too small a body of substantial information. The space is divided almost evenly between the periods of 1789-1871 and 1871-1920. There are 30 sketch maps in black and white and two in color. Brief bibliographical notes are appended to each chapter and the Appendix provides lists of monarchs, presidents, and prime ministers.

C.

The National Council is Growing

The membership in the National Council of Teachers of Social Studies now represents more than half of the states and most of the large cities. Even the islands of the Pacific (Hawaii) have been added to the "sphere of influence."

Unless the secretary has overlooked some name, the following states are not as yet represented: Arizona, Arkansas, Delaware, Georgia, Idaho, Kansas, Kentucky, Maine, Mississippi, Montana, Nevada, New Hampshire, New Mexico, North Dakota, Rhode Island, South Dakota, Tennessee, Utah, Vermont, Virginia, Washington (21).

Will not some reader of THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK, who has been reading in the recent numbers about the aims and purposes of the National Council, see to it that each of these states is soon represented by at least one regular member?

By the time this is read by the public, the second annual meeting of the National Council will have been held in Chicago; the permanent constitution will have been adopted; and the preliminary period of our history will be over. As soon as the main outline of policy is determined, more aggressive campaigns must be undertaken for two things: first, to ascertain more definitely the practice and plans of courses in the social studies throughout the country; and second, to bring outstanding differences in practices and plans to public notice so that our differences may be either eliminated or explained. For the purpose of conducting these campaigns, it is desirable to provide committees of correspondence in all of the states. These committees in stimulating the best efforts at home will secure, without great difficulty, the information which will be most useful to the central office of the National Council. In turn, the central office will be able to keep each committee informed about the practice in other sections of the country.

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